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OUTLINES OF CHILD STUDY



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OUTLINES OF CHILD STUDY'

A Manual for Parents
and Teachers

REVISED

EDITED BY
BENJAMIN C. GRUENBERG
FOR THE
CHILD STUDY ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA
WITH AN INTRODUCTION
BY
EDWARD L. THORNDIKE

New York

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1927

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TO
BIRD STEIN GANS
WHOSE INSPIRATION AND UNTIRING DEVOTION
MADE POSSIBLE THE EXISTENCE AND
CONTINUED GROWTH OF THE
CHILD STUDY ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA
THIS BOOK IS GRATEFULLY DEDICATED
BY HER FELLOW WORKERS

INTRODUCTION

It is a privilege to introduce to those unacquainted with it one aspect of the work of the Child Study Association of America. Of all the organizations which have sought to stimulate parents to study and know their children, the Association has had probably the most experience. For over a score of years its leaders have been guiding the reading and discussion of groups of parents and teachers, but especially of parents. Upon their experience are based these Outlines of Child Study. The arrangement is topical; and each topic is presented by (1) a statement of the general state of knowledge of the topic, (2) an outline which lists the detailed facts and problems concerning which there is information available, and (3) a list of helpfully graded references, ranging from attractive popular articles to technical monographs.

The treatment is comprehensive, both in the topics chosen and in the outline and references for each. Especially valuable are the sections on concrete aspects of human behavior, such as Toys, Manners, The Use of Money, Pets and Plants, and Hobbies, which the ordinary manuals of Child Study have relatively neglected. The treatment is modern; mental tests, psycho-analysis and the conditioned reflex receiving due (some conservative critics may think, undue) attention, and recent work in all lines being considered.

Suitable connections with the general sciences of human nature are made so that the student who follows the Outlines for any dozen or so of topics is almost certain to be made acquainted with representative scientific work in biology, psychology and sociology.

Many earnest parents and teachers will use this book and thank The Child Study Association of America and Dr. Gruenberg for it.

EDWARD L. THORNDIKE.

PREFACE

Every thoughtful person who has to deal with children comes sooner or later to realize that most of his acts, as well as most of the children's acts, arise, at least in part, from blind impulse. Some of these acts we recognize to be, if not harmful or foolish, at least futile or irrelevant. But, since we believe that whatever we do for the child or to the child should have a purpose in relation to his education, his development, his adjustment, we are driven by considerations of self-esteem to justify our conduct — to rationalize it, as the psychiatrists say — by attributing to it some approved purpose. We say, for example, that punishment, often but a manifestation of bad temper, is designed to teach the child a lesson; we say that our dismissal of the importunate questioner is for the purpose of teaching him to be considerate of busy people, and so on. The Federation for Child Study takes the position that we must make deliberate and systematic effort to replace impulse with purpose in all our dealings with children. We ought to know what we are driving at, we ought to know how our ends are to be achieved; we should not be content merely to carry on, merely to drive, for that is futile, and often pernicious.

Every attempt to substitute rational treatment of children for rationalized impulse raises the question of what is sound practise. And in no field are there more controversial issues. Here everybody feels free

to have opinions and nobody hesitates to give expression to his own. And with so many opinions to draw upon, so many that are supported by reputable names, it is very easy to continue upon our impulsive careers unchecked, for we have simply to claim that we are following this or that set of "methods" to make our conduct appear calculated and purposeful, not to say "scientific." The Federation has undertaken to separate usable knowledge from mere opinion. This does not mean that opinions can be wholly disregarded, for they cannot. Vast as is the accumulation of *facts* concerning the nature of the child, there are many questions about him that cannot to-day be definitely answered. The point is, first, to make use of such knowledge as is available, and second, to recognize where knowledge is lacking and where, therefore, we are using the best judgments to be had.

Finally, we recognize that between the child and his mentors there is always and everywhere — and necessarily — more or less friction. How much of this is inherent in the nature of man and of his young, and how much of it is potentially within the control of intelligence, we do not know; but we are led to hope that it is not entirely unavoidable by observing the experience of those who do actually manage to live with growing children under conditions of peace and friendship. The Federation for Child Study has assumed that responsibility for reducing this friction to a minimum rests with the elders, and that an essential element in dealing with the difficulties is a sympathetic understanding by them of the younger folks.

The aims of the Federation may thus be sum-

marized as being the substitution of purpose for impulse or inertia, of knowledge for uncritical opinion, and of sympathy for friction and antagonism. To further these aims the members of the groups have devoted themselves to a study of the characteristics of children in their various stages of development, of the forces and experiences that modify their conduct and attitudes, of the conditions favorable to their wholesome development. This study has been far from academic. Every individual has been concerned with real problems of real children. The subject-matter of this study has been children's behavior — or misbehavior — and elders' perplexities. Moreover, since knowing what 'twere well to do is by no means a guarantee of its being done, the members of these study groups have had much more to acquire than the conclusions of their discussions or the doctrines of some authority. The value of the methods developed may be inferred from the many practical results which the members feel they have attained in their own families or schools; but the outstanding value of the discussions is well illustrated by the extent to which those who have taken part in them have overcome their long-standing inhibitions to the rational, objective consideration of certain intimate problems related to the sex life of the child.

The Federation for Child Study was founded over thirty years ago by a small group of mothers, at the suggestion of Dr. Felix Adler, as "The Society for the Study of Child Nature." Since its establishment it has evolved an effective method of child study for parents, teachers, institutional and social workers — that is, for those who are vitally and practically concerned.

with children, rather than for students with a purely academic interest in the subject.† This book is an attempt to make available to others both the benefits of this method and some of the concrete results of the Federation's efforts. The Outlines have all been worked out on the basis of actual problems, both concrete and theoretical, which the members of the study groups have brought out in the course of their study and discussion. They are snapshots, so to say, of constantly changing plans; they are therefore not to be considered as in any sense final. They do represent, however, as experience has shown, very helpful guides to individual and group study, and are offered as practical working plans for those who can benefit from a better understanding of the various phases and processes of childhood. It is the intention of the Federation to issue from time to time supplementary material designed to keep workers who follow this plan up to date.

The references represent the best available literature at the present time. New knowledge is constantly being produced by observers, investigators and experimenters, and every alert person will want to keep informed regarding significant discoveries. Yet most of the readings suggested will be found to be of relatively enduring value. There is variety to allow for divergent viewpoints on controversial topics, and for different degrees of technical training on the part of the students.

In assembling this material, the active members of the Federation have done the bulk of the work. This has consisted of digesting and abstracting the reports

and minutes of hundreds of discussion and study meetings, of eliminating duplications and irrelevancies, of selecting the most helpful topics and modes of approach, and of indicating the most helpful readings. It is only one who has had the opportunity to look over the voluminous records of the Federation's activities for nearly a third of a century that can realize both the radical change in viewpoint undergone by these students, in common with professional investigators and educators, and the great amount of selection necessary to make the most usable part of these records available in the present form.

It would be impossible to enumerate those who have assisted in this work, for they number literally hundreds; but all who have taken part will feel amply rewarded if this work proves to be of practical help to their fellows.

October, 1922.

PREFACE TO SECOND EDITION

Since the appearance of the first edition of this book five years ago, the interest in a better understanding of childhood which it represents has grown at a remarkable rate among all classes of people. The Outlines have been used not only in the specific field of parental education, but with the increasing attention to problems of child development, the book has been found of practical help in colleges and training schools.

The demand for suitable text material in convenient form led to the compilation of a volume of selected readings in child study, and this was published last year under the title of *Guidance of Childhood and Youth*. In this new edition of the Outlines, the contents have been rearranged to agree more closely with the sequence of topics in *Guidance of Childhood and Youth*. As a result of the experience with these Outlines in many study groups, several of the topics have been combined, a few have been omitted as being of relatively restricted interest, and several new ones have been added. The reading references have been very largely replaced by careful selections from the large body of new material that has become available in recent years, and cross-references to the corresponding sections in the book of Readings have been included.

As in the case of the original book, most of the work for the revision has been done by members of study groups and of the staff of The Child Study Association of America — the corporate name of the reorganized Federation for Child Study.

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SUGGESTIONS FOR STUDY AND READING

The sections that make up this book give a general survey of the more common problems that arise from our having to live with children. The mere reading of the text, however, will hardly serve as a substitute for the continuous watchful and thoughtful study of children, and of other people's thoughts and observations upon children. There is offered here merely a guide for study and reading.

The table of contents will give a sufficient indication of the kind and the range of topics discussed. The individual reader or the study group or class will select a topic or a series of topics in accordance with actual needs or interests. If there is a baby in the house you will ignore for the time being the discussion of the use of money, but will give your attention to the problems of infancy. If your chief concerns are with the playmates and mannerisms of a particular child, you will look in another part of the book for help. It is desirable, however, that the study be systematic and progressive rather than random and spasmodic, although it is not necessary to take the topics in the order given.

After a topic or series of related topics has been selected for study, it will be found profitable to read first the text. This is intended to give a suggestion as to the nature of the problem, as to its relation to

various practical matters (sometimes also its theoretical bearings), and as to the directions in which solutions have been tried or worked out.

The "outline" proper should then be read carefully. The student should first read the main headings (numbered 1, 2, 3, etc.), pausing long enough to make sure of the general significance of the divisions. Then the subdivisions should be studied with some effort to recall concrete experiences related to the characteristic behavior, qualities, feelings, or whatever is indicated.

For this reading of the outline, some help may be had by again referring to the text.

Where the topic has been divided for study and report by members of a group, reading assignments as well as sub-topic assignments may be made in accordance with individual interests and special facilities. In general, the more "popular" readings and the "non-technical" readings will be found to touch on all the phases of the topics, whereas the "technical" papers usually confine themselves to some special phase, which is often apparent from the title.

It is not to be expected that any student will read most of the papers or chapters referred to; but it is desirable that where a group is studying a topic, some one or more members be assigned to read and report each reference that is accessible.

Make haste slowly. Only those who have had considerable training or experience can profitably start off with the technical literature. For beginners, the best plan is to read first one or two of the "popular" references; then, as the subject and vocabulary become more familiar, to advance to the "non-technical";

and eventually to attempt the "technical" readings, if at all, only after fairly complete acquaintance with various aspects of the special problem and with the terminology. It will be found that in very many cases the only difference between a "popular" and a "non-technical" paper on a given topic is that the former is written in a more familiar or readable style and avoids unusual words. In the same way a "technical" paper is often no more difficult of comprehension than a "non-technical," differing only from the latter in a severer style, but having no more depth of thought and revealing no greater insight.

Another important matter in the selecting of references is the fact that different styles of writing make different appeals to different individuals. It is, therefore, worth while becoming acquainted with several authors, discovering for ourselves which are most helpful. This does not necessarily mean that all the authors tell us substantially the same story and differ from each other merely in style. We shall find that some authors are more helpful, and that some are more easily read. The point is that we are to make no virtue of reading what is particularly difficult, when we can get the same practical results with less effort.

In reading a given chapter or paper, it is well to have the outline before us, either in the book or copied with generous spacing on blank paper or in a notebook. If notes are made, they can then be entered in an order corresponding to the plan followed by other members of the class. This is especially helpful where a group is engaged in a study or where the reader refers to two

or more authors, since it makes possible the comparison of notes gathered from various sources.

A slow, critical reading that attempts to check generalizations and new ideas against previous experience and that seeks to visualize the concrete situations described or the practical results implied, is of the utmost value. One such thorough reading with the problems and plans clearly in mind is worth more than several repetitions that are directed merely to "learning" what the book says.

Hand in hand with the analysis of the problems and the study of the references should go the noting of the related traits to be observed in the children. Observation may well be recorded briefly in connection with the notes, together with any questions that suggest themselves.

In reporting upon a topic, we must be careful to separate clearly our abstract of the author's facts or thoughts from our own observations, criticisms, or views.

A rereading of the text after the study of the outline and the references will serve as a summary of the topic, and the important points will be seen to have a new meaning.

From time to time the reader will come across newspaper items, magazine articles, or passages in novels or in other books that are related to the study of childhood. It is worth while in such cases to make a brief note and reference to the item in question on the appropriate page in the Manual.

PART I.—ASPECTS OF DISCIPLINE

1. FREEDOM AND DISCIPLINE

In painful recognition of the fact that each human being must attain to a mastery over the natural impulses which interfere, when given free play, with his harmonious relation to others, we have through generations of struggle developed the principle of discipline. It is indeed necessary that we learn to control ourselves — our actions, our speech, our feelings and our facial expressions. Otherwise there is no living together and human living means living together.

Moreover, it is necessary for each to learn to do skilfully and cheerfully many things that do not come “naturally;” and it is often necessary to do what is positively disagreeable.

For all these reasons “discipline” is resorted to. And discipline has meant the coercion of the body and soul, under penalty of fear and suffering, to the doing of what is needed until the habits shall have been established.

The new psychology upon which rests the doctrine of “interest” or freedom in education does not deny that training and discipline are necessary. It questions merely the permanent effectiveness or value of habits and attitudes acquired through coercion, as compared with those acquired through the exploitation of the child’s spontaneous and cultivated interests. †

It is found that there is no necessary connection between suffering and virtue; that what is acquired

under duress is rejected at the first opportunity; that it is actually possible to get the desired self-control and skill and character through appeals to interest; and finally that the child can learn to use freedom as an adult only through continuous and progressive experience with freedom.

OUTLINE

1. THEORIES OF DISCIPLINE AND TRAINING
 - a. Authoritative direction and obedience
 - b. The burnt child — "Natural discipline"
 - c. Learn to do by doing
 - d. Development as self discovery
2. SCIENTIFIC BASES
 - a. Emotion and habit formation
 - b. The purpose in relation to concentration and effort
 - c. The interest as a unifying force
 - d. Freedom *vs.* compulsion as affecting attitude
 - e. Other disciplinary forces
 - (1) Public opinion
 - (2) Rewards and punishments
3. EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOLS
 - a. Methods used
 - b. Results
 - c. Comparisons with older types of schools
 - (1) Scholarship
 - (2) Conduct
 - (3) Permanency of effect

REFERENCES

For selected readings on this topic see :

Guidance of Childhood and Youth, Chap. 1, "Aspects of Discipline."

Popular

- ADLER, FELIX — *The Punishment of Children*
- ALLEN, ANNA W. — *Home, School, and Vacation*: 116-159
- DEWEY, JOHN — *Interest and Effort in Education*:
Chap. I, "Unified vs. Divided Activity"
- FISHER, DOROTHY C. — *Mothers and Children*:
"Obedience," 97-168
- GILMAN, CHARLOTTE P. — *Concerning Children*:
Chap. II, "The Effect of Minding on the Mind"
- GRUENBERG, S. M. — *Your Child To-day and To-morrow*:
Chap. II, "Problems of Punishment"
- KILPATRICK, WILLIAM H. — *Horace Mann Studies in Primary Education: Teachers College Record*, March, 1919
"Newer Meanings of Discipline" in *Concerning Parents*: 195-212
- MILLER, H. CRICHTON — *The New Psychology and the Parent*:
Chap. III, "The Problems of Authority and Reality"
- SWIFT, E. J. — *Youth and the Race*:
Chap. II, "The Ways of Youth"

Non-Technical

- BAGLEY, W. C. — *The Educative Process*:
Chap. XIII, "Formal vs. Intrinsic Values of Experience: The Doctrine of Formal Discipline"
- BURNHAM, WILLIAM H. — *The Normal Mind*:
Chap. XVII, "Discipline and the Mental Health"
- COOLEY, C. H. — *Human Nature and the Social Order*:
Chap. XII, "Freedom"
- DEWEY, JOHN — *Interest and Discipline*

DEWEY, JOHN AND EVELYN — *Schools of To-morrow*

GROVES, ERNEST R. — *Personality and Social Adjustment*:
Chap. XVII, "Authority and Individuality"

JAMES, WILLIAM — *Talks to Teachers*:
Chap. X, "Interest";
Chap. XI, "Attention"

KIRKPATRICK, E. A. — *Fundamentals of Child Study*:
Chap. XI, "Development of Instincts — Regulative"

MONTESORI, MARIA — *The Montessori Method*:
Chap. V — "Discipline"

NORSWORTHY AND WHITLEY — *Psychology of Childhood*:
Chap. VI, "Attention"

SISSON, E. O. — *Essentials of Character*: 63-74

Technical

SPENCER, HERBERT — *Education*:
Chap. III, "Moral Education"

SULLY, JAMES — *Studies of Childhood*:
Chap. VIII, "Under Law"

Pamphlet

MEYER, ADOLF — *Normal and Abnormal Repressions*

2. OBEDIENCE

For the health and safety of the infant and the inexperienced child, it is absolutely essential that he be directed in his actions. Obedience is the means by which the older, more experienced person guides the child and protects him against the dangers of impulsive action.

Yet obedience is not to be cultivated as being in itself an end of our training. It must be considered an instrument through which the child is led to discover standards of conduct outside of his own impulses and untrained desires. He is to pass from blind impulse and whims to the guidance of personal authority; and he is to pass further from obedience to personal authority and external masters to self-control and obedience to higher laws, which is true freedom. While each of these modes is more dominant in its own particular period, we must not assume that each is to be cultivated exclusively, *e. g.*, that early childhood is to be given entirely to obedience to personal authority. Rather should all possible opportunity be given to cultivate the higher forms at the same time that the lower forms are used.

Disobedience and stubbornness are not to be considered as indications of a strong will. On the contrary, they are generally due to the child's inability to grasp and master himself. In certain cases they may be the natural result in the child of wrong handling

in his earlier years. Ready obedience, on the other hand, may in many cases indicate merely lack of purpose and the acceptance of suggestions as the easiest line to follow.

OUTLINE

1. THE NECESSITY OF OBEDIENCE

- a. Guidance in infancy
- b. Responsibility for decision in childhood
 - (1) For health
 - (2) For safety
 - (3) For conduct generally
- c. Formation of important habits

2. DANGERS OF OBEDIENCE

- a. Submission to the will of others
- b. Weakening of responsibility, discretion, and initiative
- c. Conflict between action and purpose

3. OBTAINING THE CHILD'S COÖPERATION

- a. Secure confidence
- b. Develop mutual understanding and community of aims
- c. Avoid rude intrusion upon the child's plans and purposes
- d. Avoid unnecessary, arbitrary, or thoughtless commands

4. SUBLIMATION OF OBEDIENCE

- a. Infant yields to suggestion
- b. Child follows guidance
- c. Later accepts personal authority
- d. Eventually acts according to conscience, principles, or law

REFERENCES

For selected readings on this topic see :

Guidance of Childhood and Youth, Chap. I, "Aspects of Discipline."

Popular

FISHER, DOROTHY C. — *Mothers and Children*: 97-162

GILMAN, CHARLOTTE P. — *Concerning Children*:
Chap. II, "Effect of Minding on the Mind";
Chap. III, "Two and Two Together"

GRUENBERG, S. M. — *Your Child To-day and To-morrow*:
Chap. VI, "The First Great Law"

MILLER, H. CRICHTON — *The New Psychology and the Parent*: 32-37, 197-198

Pamphlets

PILPEL, CÉCILE — *Obedience*; Studies in Child Training,
Series I, No. 1

THOM, D. A. — *Habit Training for Children*: No. 6, "Obedience"

Non-Technical

ADLER, FELIX — *Moral Instruction of Children*:
Chap. V, "The Punishment of Children"

BRIDGES, K. M. BANHAM — *Some Observations on Contrari-
ness — Negativism*:
Mental Hygiene, 9 : 521-528, July, 1925

KIRKPATRICK, E. A. — *The Individual in the Making*: 203-215

SISSON, E. O. — *Essentials of Character*: 63-74

SULLY, JAMES — *Studies of Childhood*:
Chap. VIII, "Under Law"

Technical

SMITH, THEODATE L. — *Obstinacy and Obedience*:
Pedagogical Seminary, XII, 27-54, 1905

3. REWARDS AND PUNISHMENT

Punishment originates in a primitive impulse akin to vindictiveness. It is nevertheless seriously justified by many, and inflicted for the purpose of preventing the repetition of wrongdoing. This is on the assumption (to a large degree gratuitous) that punishment acts as a deterrent or inhibitor. Something may also be said for the moral effect of penance — the curative value of an experience that compels reflection, contrition, and new resolutions.

We seek to prevent wrongdoing by a variety of means; but when it does occur, as it will, we should direct our attention to the child's weaknesses and temptations, and seek to overcome these, rather than to deal with the offense or with the resulting damage as the important thing.

The need for punishment arises usually in our failure to understand the child's impulses and reasoning. With our superior strength we should impose penalties only for the benefit of the child and its further growth, not for our own comfort or relief.

Whatever form of punishment we use, we should avoid producing antagonisms, estrangements, fears, or other results that are in any way worse than the offense we are trying to eradicate. Account should be taken of the child's mental state at the time the offense was committed, of the mental and moral development he has attained, of his attitude and his individual peculiarities.

OUTLINE

1. ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF PUNISHMENT
 - a. Instinctive or automatic striking back
 - b. Retaliation as "Justice"
 - c. Penalty as deterrent
 - d. Remedial treatment for moral improvement of offender
2. EFFECTS OF PUNISHMENT
 - a. Children's idea of punishment
 - b. Inhibitory and deterrent
 - c. Temptations to evasion and dishonesty
 - d. Antagonisms and fears
 - e. Development of hardness and cruelty
 - f. Repression
 - g. A negative agent at best
3. FORMS OF PUNISHMENT
 - a. "Natural" punishment
 - (1) Advantages
 - (2) Fallacies
 - b. Corporal punishment
 - c. Privations
 - (1) Of essentials
 - (2) Of indulgences
 - d. Imposition of tasks and hardships
 - e. Disapprobations
4. POSITIVE PRINCIPLES
 - a. Make clear connection between offense and punishment
 - b. Separate offense and offender
 - (1) Discover motives
 - (2) Avoid "bad names"
 - c. Adapt progressively to child's level of intelligence and moral development
 - d. Use child's concurrence and coöperation
5. NEGATIVE PRINCIPLES
 - a. Avoid humiliation
 - b. Avoid anger when manifesting indignation
 - c. Avoid excessive or cruel penalties

REFERENCES

For selected readings on this topic see :

Guidance of Childhood and Youth, Chap. I, "Aspects of Discipline."

Popular

ABBOTT, ERNEST H. — *On the Training of Parents* :
Chap. III, "The Rule of Wit"

ADLER, FELIX — *The Punishment of Children*

ALLEN, A. W. — *Home, School, and Vacation* : 138-141

FISHER, DOROTHY C. — *Mothers and Children* : 97-168

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Chap. II, "The Effect of Minding on the Mind" ;
Chap. III, "Two and Two Together"

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Chap. V, "The Period of Self-Discipline : Three Years to Six Years"

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Chap. II, "The Problem of Punishment"
Sons and Daughters : 20-26, 245-260

KEY, ELLEN — *The Education of the Child*

MARTIN AND DEGRUCHY — *Mental Training for the Pre-School Age Child* : 98-103

MONTESORI, MARIA — *The Montessori Method* :
Chap. V, "Discipline"

Pamphlet

MILLER, MARION M. — *Rewards and Punishments ; Studies in Child Training*, Series I, No. 2

Non-Technical

GRIGGS, E. H. — *Moral Education*:

Chap. XV, "The Nature and Function of Corrective Discipline";

Chap. XVI, "Administration of Corrective Discipline"

KIRKPATRICK, E. A. — *Fundamentals of Child Study*:

Chap. XI, "Development of Instincts — Regulative"

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Chap. VIII, "The Struggle with Law; On the Side of the Law; The Wise Law-Giver"

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BARNES, EARL — *Studies in Education*: First Series, 26-28;

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Pedagogical Seminary, III, 235-245, 1894

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SEARS, C. H. — *Home and School Punishments*:

Pedagogical Seminary, VI, 159-187, 1899

SMITH, THEODATE, L. — *Obstinacy and Obedience*:

Pedagogical Seminary, XII, 27-54, 1905

SPENCER, HERBERT — *Education*:

Chap. III, "Moral Education"

PART II. — IMPULSES AND ACTIVITIES

4. IMAGINATION

Imagination is the capacity of seeing things with the eyes shut tight. It may mean the idle and passive fantasy of the irresponsible dawdler and day-dreamer; but it may also mean the vision of the statesman or prophet or poet. It begins in the mere remembrances of past experience with concrete things and sensations. It develops through the child's dreams and fancies, and through his plays and the assignment of personality to his toys and to the other inanimate objects around him. Because of the child's ability to break off the elements of his experience from their original settings and to recombine them, imagination becomes, finally, the directed and purposeful recombination of the fragments of experience into new wholes.

Imagination is of tremendous daily importance in the adjustment of the growing personality to its environment. It is the source of sympathy and understanding of other persons. It makes possible the substitution first of words and other symbols and finally of formless feelings of relationship and meaning for the original crude representations of objects and sensations experienced. In this way, thinking comes to be more and more abstract. Imagination plays a large part in the ability of the child to translate impressions received through one sense — for example, hearing — into understanding and action, as when the spoken

instruction is translated into the appropriate deed, or when the spoken description is translated into a clear picture of the scene or object described. It plays a large part in the development of the child's aspirations, since through it he utilizes his reading, the theater, movies, games, and other secondhand experiences to think himself into a large variety of situations, and to select for himself the kind of life and conduct that will serve as his model. Finally, it plays an important rôle in the making of practical plans, in the solution of problems, in the making of concrete things, and in the invention of new devices to meet new situations.

To make possible the development of the imagination, there should be provided ample opportunities for free play with a great variety of materials. There should be stories appropriate to the successive years, and pictures at all times. The child should have access to various natural scenes, to institutions, to activities of the community, and to the thought of others. All children are given more or less to day-dreaming, which is the normal outlet of the unconscious desires for self-assertion and adventure; and this practice serves to a limited extent in preparing the child in advance for many situations he will have to meet. An excessive indulgence in day-dreaming is apt, however, to draw the child into himself and away from the realities and responsibilities of the common life. In such cases, special efforts must be made to provide an abundance of energetic and satisfying activities with real things and real people.

OUTLINE

1. ORIGIN AND NATURE OF IMAGINATION
 - a. Memory of sensory experience
 - b. Reproductive imagination
 - c. Productive imagination
 - (1) Passive
 - (2) Creative
2. DEVELOPMENT OF IMAGINATION
 - a. Natural growth
 - (1) Dreams and wishes
 - (2) Abstraction
 - (3) Animism
 - b. Stimulation through special experiences
 - (1) Stories
 - (2) Games
 - (3) Toys
 - (4) Pictures
 - (5) Dramatics
 - c. Apparent decline of imagination in adults
3. PRACTICAL IMPORTANCE OF IMAGINATION
 - a. Sympathy and understanding
 - b. Relation to thinking
 - c. Reading and hearing words
 - d. Planning, constructing, and inventing
 - e. Hopes and ambitions
 - f. Religious experience
4. EXCEPTIONAL AND MORBID ASPECTS OF IMAGINATION
 - a. Day-dreaming
 - b. Imaginary companions
 - c. Fear
 - d. Lying

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5. TRUTH AND FALSEHOOD

The child is not untruthful to begin with. He tries to give a correct statement of an occurrence, but often his version does not harmonize with the adult's understanding of facts and motives. Sometimes this is due to his inexperience and awkwardness in interpretation and expression. As his education progresses and his vocabulary is enlarged, misstatements due to these causes will gradually disappear. At other times misstatements are due to defects of sensation and perception and confusion of the imagined and remembered with the immediate and actual. While such defects and confusions are natural at an early age, they should be corrected by education and training. Otherwise the child gradually learns to take advantage of untruth, and may acquire the habit of using it for a variety of purposes. The treatment of untruth should be directed to finding and removing the causes of temptations and to cultivating ideals of honor and truthfulness.

OUTLINE

1. LIES THAT ARE NOT LIES

- a. The child says what he means; but his meaning is not clear, and his power of expression is limited
- b. Defects of sensation hamper recognition of the truth, especially defective seeing and hearing
- c. Defects of perception
 - (1) Yielding to suggestion
 - (2) Drawing unwarranted inferences
 - (3) Jumping to conclusions

- d. Defects of interpretation, influenced by lack of experience, by analogies, by own wishes, by sense of fitness

2. LIES AND REALITY

- a. The child's hold on reality is weak
- b. Dreams are not distinguished from waking perceptions
- c. Memories are confused with the immediate realities
- d. Imagination overlaps the actual
- e. Invention and make-believe invade concrete experience

3. LIES AND THE SELF

- a. Escape from punishment
- b. Malingering; escape from the disagreeable
- c. Lies to "enemies"; truth to "friends"
- d. Secretiveness
- e. The braggart; to astonish and mystify others
- f. The call for attention; exhibitionism

4. LIES AND EXTERNAL PRESSURE

- a. Excitement and passion of games
- b. Rivalries and distractions
- c. Frightening children into lying
- d. Challenging children into lying
- e. Example of older people

5. CONSCIENCE AND HEROISM

- a. Lies to shield or help others
- b. Lies to save the feelings
- c. Prevarication

6. PREVENTIVE TREATMENT OF LYING

- a. Find cause
- b. Avoid restrictions, intimidations, frights, etc., that furnish the temptations

7. CONSTRUCTIVE EFFORTS TOWARD TRUTHFULNESS

- a. Enrichment of sense experience
- b. Training in expression
- c. Experience with reality ; hand work ; nature study ; art ; adventure
- d. Cultivation of understanding through conversation, discussion, and reading
- e. Cultivation of ideals
- f. Environment in which truthful relations are taken for granted among adults ; between adults and children

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✓6. CURIOSITY

Plato called curiosity the "Mother of Knowledge," and it may be thought of as an appetite for new experience or for new kinds of experience. In the infantile stage it appears to be simply the desire for the satisfactions that come from new sensations — seeing, hearing, tasting, touching — and accounts for much of the child's unlimited capacity for getting into mischief. Curiosity appears not only in the incessant questioning and in the handling and "trying" of all objects, but also in the prying into closed spaces, in the playing of hiding-and-finding games and in numberless experiments with his own organs and surrounding objects, such as distorting the vision by pressing the eyeballs and as peering between his fingers, and later it appears as the interest in "stunts" and puzzles. The child should at each stage be encouraged to find the answers to his questions or the solutions to his problems, rather than to get them ready-made from others, or to abandon them because the solutions involve too much effort.

From this interest in the novel and hidden or forbidden may come exploratory wanderings. At first an unconscious discomfort urges the child to find what lies around the corner or beyond the horizon; later a wondering about the foot of the rainbow or what fate has in store for him; and at last, perhaps, a search for the hidden meaning of life and destiny or for the lost Atlantis.

This ^{The} irresistible impulse to reach in thought and in feeling beyond the immediate present is of great importance in education, since it makes possible the fixing of the attention so necessary for all kinds of learning, as well as the leading on to new levels of thought, of experience, and of ideals or purpose. The direction and the satisfaction of curiosity cannot be left to chance.

Sublimation of curiosity may take the form of systematic research in some branch of learning; of active investigation into some current problem; of the professionalizing of some special interest as in certain branches of law, medicine, industrial engineering, administration, detective work, and so on; of the development of a hobby involving the mastery of specialized information, exploration and the like; and of habitual open-mindedness.

Repression of curiosity, especially on the sex side, leads often to the eavesdropping or "Peeping-Tom" types of perversion; or to general indifference about matters of no immediate concern; to discouragement of the imagination; or to certain types of day-dreaming, in which there is escape from the hardships and responsibilities of progressive living. A restricted or repressive environment may also result in making gossip or other trivial interests replace a natural curiosity that is normally capable of cultivation into forms that are worth while.

OUTLINE

1. EARLY MANIFESTATIONS

a. Sensory and motor trials

- (1) Staring
- (2) Listening
- (3) Grasping and tasting

- b. Games — Hide-and-Seek type
- c. Searching activities
- d. Comparison with animals

2. QUESTIONS

- a. Forms of questions — What, Why
- b. Answering questions
- c. Idle questioning
- d. Stunts, puzzles, tricks, games
- e. Sex differences
- f. Reanimation of curiosity at puberty

3. EXPLORATION AND VAGRANCY

- a. The meaning of runaway at various ages
 - (1) The aimless wandering off
 - (2) Planned runaway
 - (3) Influence of other factors
- b. Sex differences
- c. Forcing of closed spaces, drawers, cupboards, etc.

4. IMPORTANCE FOR EDUCATION

- a. Source of interest and attention
- b. Grading of subjects, topics and methods according to stages of development
- c. Utilization of experimental method
- d. Leading on from things, to facts, principles, laws

5. DIRECTION AND SUBLIMATION

- a. Variety of occupation and experience
- b. Travel and its substitutes — reading, theater, visiting, and visitors
- c. Variety of studies, access to satisfying information
- d. Variety of personal contacts
- e. From trivialities and gossip and scandal to higher standards of "news"

6. PERVERSIONS

- a. Runaways
- b. Lying, romancing; day-dreaming
- c. Peeping-Tom; voyeur
- d. Eavesdropping, informer, gossip, and scandalmonger

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✓ 7. FEAR

Contrary to common belief, it appears from experiments that fear of specific objects or dangers is not a natural instinct but a cultivated attitude that is neither useful nor unavoidable. Infants from very birth manifest fear under certain well-defined conditions, namely, a sharp sudden noise, a sudden pain, or being suddenly dropped} or jarred, especially when just falling asleep. The fear of dogs and other natural objects seems to be acquired through association with the barking, etc., and to be transferred to strange faces, silent animals, fuzzy objects, strangely moving objects. Any sudden sound or movement may result in a fright; and any object, person or situation associated with pain or with fright may later arouse fear. In this way almost any object may become a fear object. Later the child's imagination projects the feeling of fear into the darkness, into his solitude, into his discomfort or sickness, or indeed into any mysterious situation.

Fear in infancy brings about claspings and other random movements; later it leads either to running-away or escape movements, or to a more or less complete inhibition of all voluntary movement. This "paralyzing" effect reaches the heart and blood-vessels on the one hand, and the central associative tracts of the brain on the other. Frequent frights result in discouragement, timidity, secretiveness, and anxiety. Various "phobias" involving serious morbid

conditions have been traced to infantile or childish shocks related to fright. The bigoted and hostile attitude toward strange ideas, toward foreigners, toward innovations of various kinds, are in part manifestations of unreasoned fear persisting from childhood. In general, persecution and resort to violence for attaining public ends represent traces of the infantile feeling of helplessness in the presence of danger or of mysterious power.

Although fear may be effectively used as a deterrent for infants and children, the wisdom of its employment for "disciplinary" purposes is something worse than doubtful. We must distinguish between fear and caution, the former resting on ignorance, the latter on knowledge. The child's imagination enables him to transfer monsters and hobgoblins from stories and menageries to the vacant darkness. But the same capacity enables him to substitute the unfavorable judgment of others, or of his conscience, for the physical pain or punishment which he has already learned to hate and to fear, and thus to sublimate his cowardice into the "fear of God."

Since it is the unknown, or the unpredictable, or the uncontrollable, that causes fear, the mental health and the courage of the child require extensive and intensive knowledge of his environment and of natural phenomena, and the wide range of experience that gives mastery and self-confidence. Since fear is the feeling of helplessness and incompetence, we should avoid discouragement through fright and ridicule; and we should give the child every opportunity to acquire that control over himself and over his environment which is essential for

his development and self-expression. The best antidotes for fear are curiosity that can find satisfaction, and opportunity for the free outlet of the normal impulses.

OUTLINE

1. SOURCES OF FEAR

a. Frights

- (1) Startling sounds
- (2) Sudden jar or dropping
- (3) Sudden and unexpected pain

b. Substituted fright-objects

- (1) Animals
- (2) Ugly faces, etc.
- (3) Furry surfaces

c. Projected fright-conditions

- (1) Darkness
- (2) Height
- (3) Solitude
- (4) Strange persons and objects
- (5) Stories

d. Associated fright-concepts

- (1) Authority, punishment, threats, brutality, etc.
- (2) Judgment of others, disapproval, scolding, nagging, ridicule

2. EFFECTS OF FEAR

a. Paralyzing and inhibitory

b. Flight

c. Discouragement

d. Anxiety

e. Secretiveness, lying

f. Cruelty, persecution, bigotry

3. USES OF FEAR

a. Necessary deterrent in infancy

b. Cultivation of caution

c. Abhorrence of anti-social impulses

4. PREVENTION AND TREATMENT

- a. Avoid frights
- b. Familiarize with environment and phenomena
- c. Exalt courage and heroism
- d. Avoid ridicule
- e. Cultivate curiosity and exact knowledge
- f. Substitute reason for impulse
- g. Make game of resisting shocks
- h. Direct aversions toward the mean and unworthy

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x 8. IMITATION AND SUGGESTION

Imitation, which is a universal characteristic of human beings of all ages, is to be thought of not as representing a psychological quality or faculty, but as the result of certain relations between the individual and others. Any sensation or act that impresses the child, whether through its intensity, through its frequency, or through its pleasurable accompaniment, will set up a reaction that tends to repeat the sensation, or the reflex. Thus, a flash of light that makes him blink (without frightening him) will result presently in a succession of blinking. From imitating sounds and gestures and movements, the child proceeds to react to suggestions in the form of words, which at first have no meaning except that they are associated with, and suggest, actions. New words represent ideas and he reacts to these. In short, he learns to understand other people, to respond to their verbal expressions, in part by learning the *meaning* of what is said or done to him in terms of his own reaction to the impression he receives. Thus imitation is for the young child, as it is for the young of many other animals, the process through which he acquires a large part of his adjustment to his surroundings.

At about three years of age, as self-consciousness begins to take form, there appears a period of contrariness, which may be thought of as the child's experimentation in self-control or self-reliance. It is

as though the child, seeing himself respond automatically to suggestions from others, wonders whether he has any control in the matter, and assures himself of his own "freedom" by resisting or opposing these suggestions. This stage presents a difficult problem unless we are prepared to help the child find himself rather than to insist upon our greater power. The opportunity to discover his freedom in relation to his games, to the making of things (large blocks, sand pile, etc.) that give him models from which he may depart to his heart's desire, may avoid "conflict of wills." The simplest, the most primitive assertion of individuality is just this inversion, an imitation by doing the opposite.

Imitation shows itself in a new phase when the period of rivalry sets in, at about seven to nine years. Here the self-assertiveness, or desire for notice, takes the form of seeking to excel others. This is as though the child, ignorant of his own possibilities and of the resources of his environment, gets suggestions of what to do from the doings of others; but gets the satisfaction of distinctiveness from doing the same thing in a superlative or, at least, superior degree.

The development of the child's personality should lead to the point where he deliberately selects the models he is to follow, where he selects different models for different purposes, not following his hero blindly in all things, and where he finally designs his own behavior or character pattern along distinctive lines.

The suggestibility of the child places upon those responsible for the direction of his development the obligation of surrounding him with worthy specimens of sound and form and personality, whether at home

or in school or on the street, whether in the spoken word or in the book, whether in the approvals or disapprovals, and above all in actual conduct. Imitation will be influenced by the affections; but often enough a person who has aroused dislike will have made a sufficiently strong impression to bring about unconscious imitation.

While imitativeness with passivity results in flat, conventionalized types of human beings, imitativeness supplies the aggressive, purposeful person his greatest resource for original and creative activities.

OUTLINE

1. SOURCES

- a. Motor outlet for stimulation
- b. Reflex tending to reproduce stimulus, or to repetition of reflex
- c. Effects of sounds, grimaces, movements

2. DEVELOPMENT

- a. Repetition
- b. Obedience to suggestion or associated word, gesture, etc.
- c. Response to idea
- d. Dramatization
- e. Voluntary choice of models
- f. Original recombinations

3. PRACTICAL EFFECTS

- a. Protective value in infancy
- b. Basis for language and other learning
- c. Social cohesion
- d. Effects upon sympathy and group attitudes

4. APPLICATIONS

- a. Selection of models for child's environment
- b. Opportunity for self-assertion without conflict
- c. Affection to reinforce guidance
- d. Graded progression to individuality
- e. Avoidance of overstressing either the conventional proprieties or the extreme variants

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9. CONSTRUCTING AND DESTROYING

From the random, formless movements of infancy there gradually emerges organized activity that produces concrete effects upon the objects of the child's environment. And many of these effects are of a kind that are injurious, if not to the child, at least to the objects. If these objects are of value, there is protest against the "destructiveness" of the child, although similar activities applied to worthless materials are tolerated as being in no way objectionable. From the child's viewpoint, however, these activities are to be considered on the one hand as merely explorations into the qualities of the materials around him, and on the other hand, as explorations into his own powers over his environment. These destructive activities probably have other elements in their make-up, such as the satisfaction which the child finds in asserting himself, and in producing results that he feels are caused by himself. There is also the element of imitation, as in so much of the child's activities in general.

The impulses leading to these destructive activities, instead of being repressed, need mainly guidance and development. With suitable play material and toys, the impulses find outlet and satisfaction; and gradually the activities come to be organized into "constructive" ones, involving higher and higher levels of interest, and more and more remote purposes. As an element in the child's intellectual education, the constructive work seems to be increasingly appreciated; and for

many children, a large amount of concrete experience, especially of the manipulative and constructive kind, is an essential basis for the formation of abstractions.

Constructive experience, developed under suitable guidance, will not only replace random and destructive or indifferent activities but may serve in forming the proper attitudes and appreciations in relation to workmanship and skill, as well as in the formation of ideals of performance.

OUTLINE

1. ORIGINS AND MANIFESTATIONS

a. Undifferentiated random movements

(1) Exercise of sensations

(2) Exercise of muscles

b. Curiosity factor

c. Imitation

d. Satisfaction in producing results

(1) Self-assertiveness

(2) "Sadistic" impulse (pleasure in causing suffering)

e. Inventiveness

f. Sex differences

2. DEVELOPMENT AND DIRECTION

a. Toys

b. Things to take apart

c. Materials to work upon — paper, blocks, clay, sand, cloth, etc.

d. Tools

e. Art materials

3. RELATION TO EDUCATION

a. Value of hand work as part of daily routine

(1) Release of tension

(2) Acquirement of motor and emotional control

b. Medium for discovering the work of the world

c. Means for revealing special capacities and interests

d. Basis of experience for abstract thinking

4. RELATION TO ATTITUDE

- a. Valuation of things in terms of what it takes to produce them
- b. Appreciation of skill and workmanship
- c. Development of satisfying means of self-expression
- d. Development of purposes to higher levels

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10. TOYS AND TOOLS

It is just as natural to work as it is to play, and it is quite as necessary to play as it is to work. In the course of his development, the normal child does both; and a considerable part of the problem of directing the child's development consists of building a bridge between play and work that will make both types of activity readily accessible at all stages.

Tools and toys may be considered as the material instruments through which human beings express themselves and impress their environment. The transition from the plaything to the work-thing is very elusive; and it is of no importance whatever — except for the fact that in many cases the transition is never made. The prime function of the toy is related to the form which play takes at any given time. In infancy, when satisfaction is derived from simple sensations, the toys are things to see, to hear, to touch, to bite, and so on. Here, then, a spoon serves admirably, for it is a handful to grasp, shiny to catch the eye, hard enough to make a noise against the side of the crib, and small enough to put into the mouth. The child gets from such a "toy" an abundance of muscular and sensory exercise, it gives him something to do — and that is the essential of the toy as it is of the tool.

Although work is sometimes distinguished from play in that the latter yields satisfaction through the activity itself, whereas the former yields satisfaction

through the result of the activity, the separation is not in fact so sharp. The child very early comes to be interested in the results of his activity. While he spends the first three years in merely getting acquainted with the world around him, a part of this acquaintance consists in knowing what changes can be produced on the materials at hand. So that although he may begin by touching and tasting, etc., he continues by breaking or tearing, crushing or bending. This means that he must get material for making. The arranging and rearranging of blocks or spools, the rolling or throwing of a ball, the blowing of a whistle, gradually give way to paper and shears and paste, to clay and crayon and needle.

When the child's imagination begins to invest the objects around him with personality, or with traits remembered and transferred from other things, the toy is in the nature of a lay figure upon which he can hang garments suitable for all occasions. The doll then is merely a material symbol, and need not have the detail and finish that a more critical adult would demand. A stick will serve as a hobby horse, a box drawn by a string is enough of a wagon.

When critical observation and command over the muscles have progressed far enough, the child's interest in things he wants and his interest in doing may be combined in the project of making his own toys. From this it is but a short step to work — that is, activity that is interesting not in itself but because of the results it yields.

The precise form which work and play take will depend, in a given stage of development, upon the

materials and activities that characterize the surroundings. On a farm the child will have toy animals and will play at gardening or dairying; in the city he will have a toy fire engine and play at shopping or parades.

The selection of toys must, therefore, be guided not only by the age of the child, but by the stimuli and suggestions that are likely to have meaning. And tools or work-things must, in the same way, be not only usable, but related to the things that the child will want to do.

OUTLINE

1. ACTIVITY ESSENTIAL TO GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT
 - a. Spontaneous or "play" activity
 - b. Directed or "work" activity
 - (1) Direction of activity by external compulsion
 - (2) Direction by interest or acceptance
2. GRADED INTERESTS AND CORRESPONDING PLAYTHINGS
 - a. First Three Years
 - Sensory experience
 - Getting acquainted with the world
 - Acquirement of control of larger muscles
 - (1) Rattle, ball, ring
 - (2) Striking, biting, whistle
 - (3) Spools, clothespins
 - (4) Pull by string
 - (5) Fill and empty
 - (6) Lift and carry
 - (7) Dress and undress (doll)
 - (8) Paper and paste
 - (9) Blocks
 - (10) Clay

b. To Six Years

Imitation

Motion

Rhythm

- (1) Dolls, animals
- (2) Household tools, to help in real work
- (3) Seesaw, swing, rocking-horse
- (4) Gocart, kiddy-car, hobby-horse, wheelbarrow
- (5) Cart, train, boat, fire engine, windmill
- (6) Sand, water, measuring
- (7) Making own toys, put together blocks, etc.
- (8) Hammer and nails
- (9) Toy furniture, tea set, kitchen set, play hostess
- (10) Weaving, raffia, beads, basketry, knitting
- (11) Crayon, paint, stencils

c. To Ten Years (from activity for its own sake and control of movements, to control of environment)

Rivalry

Sensitiveness to failure

Collecting

Constructing

- (1) Plants to grow; garden
- (2) Pets to care for; aquarium
- (3) Scouting; Indians; hunting
- (4) Policeman, letter-carrier, expressman, post-office
- (5) Robinhood; pioneers
- (6) Dramatization; costumes and material for making costumes; scenery, etc.
- (7) Bow and arrow, boxing, sled, skating
- (8) Athletic games
- (9) Doll

d. Ten to Twelve Years

Transition to adolescence

Concrete results of activity desired — something to show for effort

Recognition and approval

- (1) Elaboration of skills initiated in earlier period
- (2) Advance in handicrafts
- (3) Printing press, art materials, sewing, etc.
- (4) Substantial tools and working space

e. Thirteen to Fifteen Years

Play of child becomes replaced by more systematic pursuit of hobby

- (1) Materials for experimentation
- (2) Tools and materials for constructive arts and crafts
- (3) Musical instruments
- (4) Athletic equipment

3. CLASSIFICATION OF TOYS

a. In Relation to Child's Activity

- (1) Do nothing
- (2) Look on
- (3) Do with

b. As to Types of Activity

- (1) Sensory appeal
- (2) Manipulation
- (3) Construction
- (4) Operation
- (5) Imitation of activities of others; participation in service and activities
- (6) Games
- (7) Sports and athletics

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11. PLAY

That type of puritanism that considers play a device of the devil to mislead the children of man is perhaps not more ancient than the insight which observes the dulling effect of the repression of play impulses. However annoying the shouts of children at play may be to a nervous adult trying to nap while the sun is shining, however it may irritate us to see the children prefer their foolish games to the very precious lessons we seek to impress upon them, it remains true that play, whether considered as an impulse or as an indulgence, is neither wicked nor useless.

There are two groups of theories as to the meaning of the play impulse in children, neither of them altogether satisfactory. According to the one, children do what they do as a preparation for the serious business they will have to carry on later. This assumes a purposeful implanting of impulses that have relations to needs that are to appear later, or an evolution of types in which the results of play during childhood were of survival value to adults. If one is willing to accept this kind of "explanation," he might as well ask for the implanting of instincts that are ready to work when needed. There is here an overemphasis on the supposed adaptiveness of all human traits, or a frank teleology.

The other group of theories assumes the so-called law of biogenesis as universally applicable, and accord-

ingly looks upon the succession of impulses that the child manifests in the course of the years as a recapitulation of the outstanding activities of the various stages in our ancestral history. This implies that the cultural stage of the race at any time is the expression of the organic evolution attained, or that somehow the adjustive responses to the environment become fixed in the heritage of the race.

Perhaps it suffices to look upon play as impulses to action due to the general complexity and irritability of the organism, the form of the play being determined by a combination of influences in the materials and processes present in the environment. Play is thus the progressively organized spontaneous activity of the child as distinguished from activity that is either mechanically acquired and meaningless routine movement, or outwardly directed or enforced "work."

From this viewpoint we can at once see "play" directly related to an optimum of physical exertion and to a high emotional tone of a generally pleasurable quality, both making for physical and spiritual health. Moreover, as the child learns from his experiences, his play reacts upon his mental processes, and so influences further associations, thinking habits, and skill, as well as his mental content.

For these reasons the spontaneous activities and interests require guidance both in the sense of protecting children against injurious or excessive activities, and in the positive sense of furnishing them opportunities and materials suitable to their successive stages of development, to their prevailing interests, and to their temperamental requirements. In this way the play

of the child, from the shaking of a rattle to the organization of amateur theatricals for the benefit of unfortunates, is a vital education, and a progressive adjustment to the finding of satisfaction in arduous, constructive effort. The development of skill and endurance, the cultivation of persistence and courage, are quite within the effects of an intelligent direction of play interests.

Because play is spontaneous as well as unproductive in a direct economic sense, children have been largely left to their own resources, in too many cases with incalculably injurious results. As we come to see the importance of play both for the health and happiness of the child day by day, and for his best development, we must make more provision for play materials and opportunities in school as well as in the home, and eventually in the community at large. Through playgrounds and parks, through recreation centers and amusement halls, properly directed and supervised, the children of the community must find the normal outlets for their impulses under conditions that make for the utmost satisfaction of the individual and the greatest safety and welfare of the group.

OUTLINE

1. THEORIES OF PLAY

- a. Wanton, wasteful, trifling
- b. Instinctive rehearsal for the game of life
- c. Recapitulation of the race's struggle

2. VALUE OF PLAY

- a. Physical effects
- b. Relation to emotions and health
- c. Mental reactions

3. DIRECTION OF PLAY
 - a. Educational possibilities
 - b. Grading of opportunities
 - c. Play and work
4. RESPONSIBILITIES FOR PLAY
 - a. Provision in the home
 - b. School
 - c. Community organization
 - (1) Playgrounds
 - (2) Recreation centers
 - (3) Amusements

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12. HOBBIES

The hobbies of adults represent the more highly individualized remains of early play activities. While we all desire leisure, either as an escape from disagreeable tasks or simply as rest from excessive labor, however pleasant, comparatively few people have cultivated permanently satisfying interests and occupations for their leisure. The first value suggested by "hobby" is that of a refuge from tedium in old age or in enforced idleness. But investigations show that very rarely does an adult follow a spare-time pursuit that was not cultivated in childhood. The foundation for hobbies must be laid before adolescence, although there may be endless refinement and specialization.

From the viewpoint of the child's development, a hobby ordinarily does not appear very early. There should be a wide range of play or spontaneous activity, for it is through such activity that the child discovers the world and himself. Gradually the more satisfying activities will receive increasing amounts of time and effort. It is important only that specialization be not forced too early, as by limiting the range of opportunity, or by overdirection from adults, and that the child learn to do whatever he does with zeal.

As a rule the spirit of play does not enter into the major activities of life; it can best be preserved by hobbies. They should therefore be cultivated for the values which play yields. The pursuit of a hobby.

stimulates effort, opens up lines of interest and maintains enthusiasms when there is nothing to do but work. It serves as a means for unifying many diverse interests and efforts, and to widen the sympathies by giving experience in the field of varied pursuits and interests.

OUTLINE

1. THE SOURCES OF HOBBIES

- a. Spare-time activities of children
- b. Influence of companions, reading, local esteem for various pursuits, casual factors
- c. Gradual differentiation
- d. Impress of individuality

2. THE VALUE OF HOBBIES

For the child

- a. The educational values of play as spontaneous activity and interest
 - (1) A means for becoming acquainted with surroundings and with his own capacities and limitations
 - (2) A means for acquiring control of surroundings and of himself
 - (3) A means for adjusting to other human beings
- b. As experience with variety of materials and forces
 - (1) A means for unifying knowledge and skill
 - (2) A means for acquiring specialized expertness
- c. As absorbing interest
 - (1) A source of stimulation to effort
 - (2) A source of insight to other people's interests

For the older person

- a. A source of enthusiasm when most activities have become routinized
- b. A bond of interest with other enthusiasts
- c. A helpful source of stimulation
- d. A profitable occupation for free time

3. THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN

- a. Opportunity for widest contacts
- b. Encouragement to try out whatever is humanly interesting and socially tolerable
- c. Approval of and sympathy for early enthusiasms
- d. Avoidance of early specialization

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13. INITIATIVE

In the infant we may observe many movements that are apparently set off by some external stimulus — a sound, the sight of a moving object, a touch. There are other movements that seem to arise from something going on within the child. At every stage of development there appear impulses from within to do something. In some cases we can recognize these as related to special types of interest, such as the desire to impress others or curiosity. In other cases, however, we are impressed only with the fact that the child is impelled to do things for which we can find no outward or immediate source or stimulus. We say that there is initiative, that there is something within the organism that makes it start activities on its own. No two children will start exactly the same lines of action, engage in the same undertakings; what distinguishes one child from another in this respect is the effect of the temperament or the individuality of the child.

Early in his development there begin to operate influences which restrict the child's spontaneous actions and interests and interfere with them in various ways. The child is obliged to confine himself to lines of conduct that are either approved or ignored by the more powerful personalities of his environment. Such restraints are not altogether arbitrary, however. There is nothing in the nature of the organism that insures the fitness or even harmlessness of its self-initiated movements,

and the child is therefore in constant danger of coming into conflict with the solid realities and injurious forces of the environment. There are stairs that permit painful falls; there are hot points and surfaces that burn; there are things small enough to put into the mouth, but better kept out. Above all, there are other human beings, who, unless they receive consideration, will cause trouble. All of these facts impose the necessity of either repressing many primary interests and activities, or of modifying them substantially in their manifestations. Complete repression, however, is neither possible nor desirable.

The child needs the experience of carrying out his impulses as well as of meeting difficulties and obstructions. By completing what he undertakes on his own initiative he gains not only the immediate satisfaction, but an increase of self-confidence and expansion of his personality. This is the primary significance and value of success; reality has been made to conform to the ideal. On the other hand, whatever thwarts him, whatever leads to failure, leads to an opposite result. There may be the feeling of dissatisfaction, of lack of fulfillment; there may be humiliation in failure before others; there may be a questioning of his own worth. Yet we must not assume that every effort should lead to success, or that the child should be shielded from failure at all cost. Continuous experience of success, constant opportunity to do only what he wants to do, what he feels like doing, will stand in the way of learning to live with other people, of learning to value the efforts of others; will exaggerate his feeling of his own importance. He should

experience both success and failure in moderation, and in relation to significant and expanding values.

Fortunately, it is possible to attain to social adjustment and at the same time retain a considerable amount of intellectual and spiritual independence. There should be provided for the child from the earliest days ample and increasing opportunities for self-chosen activities in surroundings that are relatively safe and stimulating. These opportunities should consist of a great variety of material for playing and for *making*; encouragement in simple efforts; the example of others trying to make things, to compose a song, to tell a story, to draw a picture, to start a game, and so on. Through such free activity with a variety of materials and in varied situations, the child discovers his capacities and his limitations, and experiences successes and failures graded to his developing needs. ~~He~~^{Child} will choose more and more to do those things that he can do most satisfyingly, and to avoid those in which he is likely to fail.

OUTLINE

1. THE VALUE OF FREE ACTIVITY IN THE CHILD
 - a. Releases maximum of energy for action
 - b. Reveals native interests and capacities
 - c. Contributes to satisfaction and success
2. NEED FOR RESTRAINT AND MODIFICATION OF INITIATIVE
 - a. Requirements of materials and forces of environment
 - b. Consideration for others
 - c. Activities for which there are no native impulses
 - d. Social requirements
3. EFFECTS OF SUCCESS
 - a. Increases self-confidence and self-respect

- b. Stimulates to further effort
- c. Danger of conceit and arrogance
- 4. EFFECTS OF FAILURE
 - a. Destroys initiative
 - b. Discourages effort
 - c. Danger of permanent inferiority feeling
- 5. EDUCATIONAL NEEDS
 - a. Opportunity for self-expression
 - b. Encouragement and grading
 - c. Stimulating examples
 - From older people and craftsmen
 - From equals and possible rivals
 - d. Avoidance of too much help
 - e. Avoidance of arbitrary restraints
- 6. IDEAL AIMS
 - a. Experimental attitude
 - b. Courage to think through
 - c. Respect for objective reality
 - d. Respect for other persons, other tastes, other modes
 - e. Direction of initiative by rational considerations

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14. AMBITIONS AND IDEALS

From unconsciously reaching out toward the objects that catch his attention, and from unconsciously imitating the actions and expressions of the people he sees, the child gradually comes to be aware of wanting things that are not present to his senses, and of wanting to be like, or to do like, persons he does not see. When the imagination has developed to a certain point, it combines elements of past experience in new ways; and any such combination that appeals to the child as worthy of realization, becomes an "ideal."

The personal ideals are thus constructed out of observed models, to begin with. To be like father or like mother, to have the power or the things that grown folks have, to do what the mighty and admired men and women of the limited environment — these become objects of the heart's desire.

Ideals are progressive just because (and just to the extent that) experience and ideas grow. The early models that the child adopts are expanded and refined through the influence of stories heard, pictures seen, books read, personalities felt, through the witnessing of drama upon the stage and in real life. —

From a desire to secure pleasure or satisfaction for himself, the child passes to an attitude toward his group — he seeks both the recognition or admiration of others and the opportunity to serve others. From the hero as embodiment of envied or admired virtues,

serving as an extraneous model, the ideal is assimilated until the child comes to impersonate his hero and to play the rôle as well as he can. In the end the attributes of this ideal person become abstracted as principles or rules of conduct. With each successive ideal or ambition, the child may be guided into establishing habits of conduct or of attitude that correspond to the outstanding virtues of the ideal and of the period.

It is necessary to give the child not only an ever growing opportunity to acquire new ideals, but also every encouragement to put the present ideals into practice. Otherwise there is no means for determining relative values of ideals, or their practicability. We must guard on the one hand against disparaging untried ideals, with the danger of cynicism or indifference to all idealism; and on the other hand, against approving a vague reverence for untried ideals, with the corresponding danger of sentimentalism.

Since the ideals expand with the child's acquaintance in the world of human conduct and relations, attention should be directed to the companions, literature, and amusements, that furnish him so much of his incidental information. The school, the church, the theater, the current magazines and newspapers contribute more or less systematically to the ideals of the rising generation.

Almost from the earliest years the child needs help in formulating his ideals and purposes. This aid comes largely in the form of precepts and proverbs, epigrams and aphorisms. But we should neither depend too much upon them as effective guides to the child's decisions in conduct; nor commend them too pointedly

as valid guides. As the child grows older the opportunity to clear up his own thoughts and feelings through discussions with companions and with more mature persons can be of decided help.

At every stage the child should be encouraged to live up to his ideal even at a sacrifice, for it is better to hold fast and fail, than to weaken and gain through a mischance.

OUTLINE

1. NATURE AND SOURCES

- a. Conscious imagining of desires
- b. Progressively modified during growth
- c. Influenced by experience and suggestion

2. DEVELOPMENT

- a. Desire for objects — things that yield pleasure
- b. Imitation of heroes
- c. Eagerness to excel (rivalry)
- d. Abstract principles of conduct

3. USES

- a. Furnish stimulus to effort
- b. Offer opportunity for inculcating desirable habits
- c. Serve as nucleus for unifying interests, studies, etc.
- d. Make possible development of a compelling purpose
- e. Determine choice of career and of level of conduct

4. DANGERS

- a. Indulgence in fantasy and day-dreaming, as escape from reality and responsibility
- b. Over-reaching to the impossible, ending in sentimentalism
- c. Fixation at low level of satisfaction
- d. Loss of faith in ideals

5. GUIDANCE AND CONTROL

- a. Example of surrounding personalities in home
- b. Companions
- c. Literature; biography
- d. Stimulation and inspiration of school, church, theater, etc.
- e. Opportunity for graded objective experience
- f. Aid in formulating purposes
- g. Encouragement to hold fast

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15. RIVALRY AND COMPETITION

We are all rather completely immersed in competitive pursuits. As a result, most of us are likely to take the feelings of rivalry and the corresponding modes of conduct for granted as natural. Moreover, most of us are likely to justify these feelings and conduct as right or necessary despite the obvious damage from the scheme of relationships which habitual competition involves.

What lies back of the competitive mode of behavior is probably not a simple instinct or trait of "human nature," but a specialized form of the desire for being noticed, influenced by the imitation of what is going on around us. The child begins very early to imitate movements, sounds, facial expressions, gestures that he observes; sooner or later he discovers that the various tricks which at first yielded satisfaction in themselves, or through the attention they drew upon him, cease to satisfy; and the only way he has of getting attention is to do what others are doing, but to a degree that is superlative. This rivalry is analogous to the strutting of the male birds or the coy preenings of the female; these performances stimulate the animals to further efforts in the same direction, and give the appearance of "competition."

The value of rivalry for the developing child lies in bringing to his attention, and stimulating his efforts for, a variety of activities, and so in acquainting him

with the degrees to which he may hope to master the different kinds of activity. His successes, in addition to the skill derived from the effort and practice, contribute to his self-esteem; his failures ought at least to contribute to his respect for others.

There are dangers, however, in too insistent an emphasis upon the importance of attaining the extreme of achievement, or of excelling. After all, we cannot excel in everything; and most of us cannot excel in anything. To make the child value too highly the winning in every competition or contest, instead of the game, is not only to destroy his sportsmanship, but to lay the foundations for more or less serious inferiority complexes. These hurt the child by destroying his self-esteem, by driving him to socially undesirable modes of self-assertion, and by making him rationalize his own status through disparaging the achievement of others. This makes for envy, discontent, and hostility to the group.

There are of course corresponding dangers to the conceit and self-sufficiency of the child who does early excel in the few things he has attempted, and who is shrewd enough to avoid competition in doubtful directions.

The development of the child's personality through experience in competitive efforts should be directed toward the discovery of satisfactions in group activities, that teach loyalty, coöperation and sacrifice toward satisfaction involving not the individual's distinction but the team's, or school's, or club's distinction, and to that extent an enlargement of the child's capacity to serve and to identify himself with the common

interest. His personality should grow through his identification of himself with progressively larger groups. The interest should further be directed toward the discovery of values, the pursuit of which will yield satisfaction without involving loss or injury to others, and which will at the same time make the self-assertion distinctive and fruitful of the kind of recognition that is desired.

The child needs opportunities for discovering as much as possible of what is worth doing, of his own capacities and limitations, and of what distinctive combinations of effort will yield the greatest value.

OUTLINE

1. THE NATURE OF RIVALRY
 - a. Comparison with lower animals
 - b. Source in self-assertiveness or desire for recognition
 - c. Conditioned by imitativeness
2. THE VALUE OF COMPETITIVE ACTIVITIES
 - a. The discovery of what kinds of activities there are
 - b. The discovery of own abilities and limitations
 - c. Stimulation to maximum effort
 - d. Respect for achievement of others
 - e. Development of group loyalties
3. THE DANGERS IN OVEREMPHASIS ON EXCELLING
 - a. To the winners
 - (1) Complacency and conceit
 - (2) Contempt for divergent types of achievement
 - (3) Lack of sympathy for others
 - b. To the losers
 - (1) Inferiority complexes
 - (2) Disparagement of conventional values
 - (3) Envy and discontent
 - (4) Hostility toward the group

- c. To both winners and losers
 - (1) Distorted scale of values
 - (2) Arrest of development
- 4. THE NEEDS OF THE CHILD
 - a. Opportunity to discover own potentialities and limitations
 - b. Opportunity for getting approval and recognition in worthy achievement, whether in work, study, or play
 - c. Opportunity to transfer the competitive interest
 - (1) From himself to the group
 - (2) From childish and cheap or conventional aims to selected and distinctive aims

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16. FIGHTING

The most prominent emotional accompaniment of fighting is anger, which is the feeling aroused primarily by the restraint of action, and later by the frustration of impulses by some discoverable agent. Thus we are angry at the man who gets in our way as we are hurrying to catch a train, but only a childish mind will feel anger toward a storm that interferes with his plans. The so-called fighting instinct is rather a complex of many impulses. The hitting back element is obvious enough, but does not account for the initiation of fighting. There is present, in degrees varying with individuals as well as with sex, the desire to inflict pain as seen in bullying and teasing, or to receive pain (the masochistic impulse) as seen also in a certain form of teasing, which seems to be an invitation to "punishment." Both of these may be special forms of self-assertiveness, or unconscious search for attention or recognition. But neither bullying nor teasing is perhaps altogether a simple matter. There is present in fighting a relic of feelings that point back, so to say, to the satisfaction of the hunt and chase. And finally there is an element suggestive of rivalry combat. This shows itself strikingly in the fighting spirit aroused during later adolescence, when the appearance of a second male converts the good company of the female into an extremely irritating situation for the first one.

The defensive and offensive activities constituting

fight, have biological meaning in so far as they serve as adaptive means for protection against inimical factors of the environment and for the conquest of prey for food, etc.

On the social plane fighting has been of value in the conflicts of groups, tribes, nations, and so on; but is probably to-day, in civilized man, a vestige fraught with dangers if allowed to take its course undirected.

In the development of the child there are dangers connected in the first place with the direct injuries resulting from the use of force out of proportion to his judgment and control (the risk of serious physical injury increasing with age). In the second place there are dangers connected with the establishment of attitudes or values on relatively low stages of personal or social evolution.

In the child's training it is therefore necessary in the first place to allow frank fighting with children of his own size, in order that the emotions leading to the activities may not be repressed and turned into brooding hatred and vindictiveness. It is good psychology to let the child "work off" his anger, or "get it out of his system." On the other hand, bullying and teasing should be discouraged; although the most effective discouragement is likely to come from a thorough-going thrashing administered by a worm that has turned, or by some other child. Later substitutes can be found in wrestling and boxing and in organized athletic contests in which the fight elements are more or less conventionalized. Apart from the physiological effects upon the circulation and glands, these contests have the further advantage of training the child for deliberate

and calculating action while under stress, a very important means of attaining to control of temper and moods.

Alongside of the training for control should proceed the training that transfers the anger reaction from the personal and physical restraints to the social and ideal frustrations. This is, of course, a part of that training which on the one hand enlarges the individual's consciousness of "self" to include his family, school, community, nation, race — and on the other hand projects his sensitiveness to injury from his own skin to the vaguer but no less real concepts of "fair play," "honor," "justice," etc.

The fighting "instinct" may thus be preserved while it is being guided to function on progressively higher stages of human worth. Instead of becoming a bully or a pugilist there is the possibility of becoming a knight perpetually combating disease, or corruption, or poverty, or injustice, or ignorance — or war; and with the growth of knowledge and power and self-confidence the negative and antagonistic forces may eventually become the drive for positive and constructive efforts.

OUTLINE

1. COMPOSITION

- a. Anger
- b. Self-assertiveness
 - (1) Bullying
 - (2) Teasing
- c. Chase and flight
- d. Rivalry-combat

2. USES
 - a. Biological
 - b. Social
3. DANGERS
 - a. Disproportionate effects
 - b. Fixations
4. TRAINING
 - a. Fighting as discipline
 - b. Sublimation to higher levels

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PART III. — THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

17. FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

According to certain investigations into the sources of adult difficulties and serious mental disturbances, a large proportion of such failures can be traced to situations characteristic of family life. Belonging to a family would seem to be rather hazardous; yet trying to grow up without a family is even more so. There are indeed dangers in every type of situation in which the child can find himself. If he is an only child, he gets too much attention and indulgence. If he is the only boy or the only girl, other dangers await him. In the larger family somebody has to be the oldest and somebody else the youngest, with special risks for each position; and within a series each has difficulties because he is younger than some and older than others. If the parents have strained relations, this reacts unfavorably upon the child or children; but if the parents care too much for each other, the child may be too excluded and so suffer from real or imaginary neglects or privations. It is dangerous to select parents that are too poor, but also to select those that are too rich; and so it goes. But this is essentially what we find everywhere in life; there is no perfect or ideal condition, and life consists of meeting reality, adjusting the self to it, and if possible mastering it and making it serve one's own purposes.

The advantages of the family, from the point of view of the child, lie in the very facts that make it dangerous.

There are affection, solicitude, concern for the child; if these make possible indulgence, selfishness, dependence, they make possible also protection against blights and destructive forces, they make possible also opportunity to come gradually into control of the self, they mean also a background of security against which one can learn to face the world undaunted. There is, of course, no question of giving the child a choice, or of making for him the choice, between a home and an institution. There is only the question of an understanding on the part of adults as to the best way to manage the home for the child, as to the preventable injuries, and as to the benefits within reach.

For an understanding of the family problems, it is helpful to consider the social and economic changes that have taken place within the past two or three generations, and to note especially the effect that these have produced upon the activities and relations found within the home, more particularly upon the activities, interests, and status of the mother. It is safe to say that in general the average home no longer demands the full time, the full thought, and the full energies of the mother. This is not to say that most mothers have more leisure than they could use, or that the work of the home maker is becoming too light or trivial. It is only to emphasize the fact that with the removal of many of the essential processes from the home to the factory or shop there has not been a sufficient development of new interests and new outlets for creative effort to give the average mother an opportunity to express herself in activities that are either themselves satisfying, or in their results obviously worthy of pride or respect.

One of the results has been that the home has become for the child empty of interesting doings; but another has been that it has become depleted of interesting activities for the mother, and she showers her solicitude and attention upon the children. It is easy enough to say that the care of the children is a sufficiently noble, sufficiently exacting task to occupy the best energies of the mother for all the time she can give to it; for this is clearly evident. We should consider, however, that whereas the mother had in the past some technique for spending her interests and energy to good purpose upon the household, the average mother of to-day has acquired no technique for making good use of the excessive interest and energy available for expenditure upon her children. The growing dissatisfaction with these conditions, on the part of more and more adults, produces consequences that reflect upon the children, and the need is urgent for more thoroughgoing study of the home situation as it affects the lives of all its members. For in all cases the child is the victim of every shortcoming, every defect; and the result tends to perpetuate itself in the habits and attitudes of the next generation because these children will rarely overcome the defects arising out of their own early surroundings.

OUTLINE

1. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE HOME FOR THE CHILD
 - a. Early conditioning and habituation — in relation to health, physical adjustments, etc.
 - b. Formation of attitudes — fears, likes and dislikes, standards, etc.
 - c. Attachments and hostilities — toward people, personalities, races, etc.

2. RELATIONS WITHIN THE FAMILY
 - a. Between the parents
 - b. Between parents and children
 - c. Between brothers and sisters, etc.
 - d. Between younger and older
 - e. Between grandparents and other members
3. EXTRA-FAMILIAL MEMBERS OF HOUSEHOLD
 - a. More distant relatives
 - b. Boarders, guests, etc.
 - c. Helpers and servants
4. SPECIAL DIFFICULTIES AND SOURCES OF DANGER
 - a. The different demands made upon the home by the father and the mother
 - b. Growing inadequacy of the home as field of activities
 - c. Constant pressure to shift to outside agencies responsibility for care of children
 - d. Opportunity for prolonged dependence — possible results in inferiority feeling; inability to initiate on his own responsibility
 - e. Excessive indulgence — arrogance, "selfishness"
 - f. Excessive dominance — revolt against all authority; running away from home
 - g. Fixation of affections — on parent, or other member of family
5. SPECIAL NEEDS
 - a. The child must have an opportunity to become himself
 - b. The child must learn to live with many kinds of people
 - c. The child must learn to live in many kinds of relationship — with "superiors" and "inferiors" as well as with equals, without prejudice
 - d. The child must acquire independence of others — freedom from domination and support; freedom from others as objects of domination
 - e. The growing child must have opportunity for insight into the family's economic situation
 - f. The child must have people to respect — his parents if possible

- g. The child must have faith in people — his home should give him this
- h. The child must be ready to leave home, but not eager to escape it as something hateful

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18. THE USE OF MONEY

Money plays an important rôle in modern life. Children should have experience with it so that they may learn to handle it wisely. With the control of money goes responsibility for its proper use. Children may receive payment for rendering useful service, but not for doing personal favors, nor for meeting their recognized obligations.

Allowances are neither favors nor payments; money is a necessary part of the child's daily adjustment, in the same way as is clothing or language. Allowances are furthermore allotments of the family income, as instruments of education in the use of money.

The child should have experience in earning money as well as in spending it; and he should acquire a due appreciation of its significance and value in human relations, but the danger of making money-getting the main end of all effort must be guarded against.

The child derives a certain satisfaction from giving, and generous impulses to aid others should be encouraged. To give to charities in the name of the child gives him illegitimate satisfactions, since such giving involves no sacrifice on his part and no real sharing or participation. Children must learn the meaning of poverty and the more effective means for dealing therewith.

OUTLINE

1. LEARNING THE VALUE OF MONEY

- a. The importance of money in modern life
- b. Child learns through experience and example
- c. Progressive experience through buying and spending
 Buying own clothes, etc.
- d. Learning cost of upkeep, etc.
 Keeping accounts, use of check book

2. ALLOWANCES

- a. At what age? Amounts?
- b. Control of money received by child
- c. Deductions and fines for damage, negligence, etc.
- d. Should allowances be withheld as a means of discipline?

3. EARNING MONEY

- a. Paying for home services
- b. What kind of work may be paid for?
 - (1) Favors *vs.* purchasable services
 - (2) Duties *vs.* purchasable services
- c. Opportunities for earning; business enterprise
 - (1) Boys and girls
 - (2) City and country
- d. Control of money earned
- e. Growth of family allegiance through coöperation in financial projects
- f. Money "making" necessary but not an end of life
 (See outline "Acquisitiveness" on the property sense)

4. SAVING

- a. Saving not an end in itself
 - (1) Inherent individual tendencies toward saving or spending
 - (2) Training of interest in a remote objective
- b. Saving should be for specific purposes
- c. Teaching thrift principles and habits
 Money is nice to have — but what for?

5. ALMSGIVING

- a. Children's interest expands to sympathy with others
- b. Children's experiences with the needs of others
- c. Charitable organizations and long-distance giving
Dependent poor
- d. Giving and sharing

6. IDEAL ATTITUDE

- Skillful use of money as an instrument
Balanced appreciation of money as a means toward
justifiable ends

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19. ACQUISITIVENESS

The child begins at about three years to gather to himself whatever he lays hands upon. Girls and boys early acquire the desire to enlarge their accumulation, and interest in gifts is largely related to this desire. Later they find that things are to be had as rewards of various kinds of merit. Still later they sally forth to *get* by whatever means is in their power, and in many cases the interest leads to more or less systematic barter, especially with boys; and not infrequently to stealing.

There is no discrimination to begin with; gradually the collection becomes specialized under various influences — what there is to be had, the suggestions in the conversation or activities of elders, curiosity (especially concerning objects of nature), and sentimental associations, such as souvenirs of parties, programs, posters, and so on.

The interest in collecting is stimulated by the desire to enlarge in comparison with others (rivalry), by the approval and admiration that can be drawn forth, and by the satisfaction of attaining a high standard. On the subjective side, it is influenced by the satisfaction of overcoming various difficulties in the way of attaining the standard (prowess). The interests are likely to change as the child grows in esthetic discrimination, as he acquires new interests out of his reading or schooling or new acquaintances,

and as he becomes more exacting in systems and classifications.

Although the child's collecting may end in a vain "hobby" or in a garretful of junk, it is capable of being guided into an instrument of genuine culture. The collecting interest gives for the time being a basis for unifying studies and other activities, leads to more concentration and greater exertion. Even the collection of "useless" things furnishes opportunity for acquiring special knowledge, and at least an appreciation of expertness and respect for authority founded on expertness. It leads to excursions into remoter corners of the world of people and things and ideas.

The child should be encouraged to work his interest intensively; and the shifting to new interests with the advancing years should not be disparaged. The interests of the child manifested in his collecting should not be taken too seriously as indicating a natural "bent" or a special vocational capacity. In most cases it is likely to indicate merely a stage of development, or an incidental influence of the environment. Instead of seizing upon such an interest that happens to appeal to elders as the final index of a future career, we should deplore rather an early settling down to a specialty while there is the possibility for advance to a higher level.

Collecting, unguided and uncontrolled, has its dangers. Pursued too intently it leads to loss of perspective; and even to ruthlessness, as in the collecting of birds' nests, or in the collecting of "souvenirs" by college boys and girls. It may lead to the accumulation of worthless junk, and to the withholding from use

by others of materials that might be useful. Old clothes, magazines, and books are junk in one house; in another they might be truly useful and might better be put to work wherever possible. But we also dislike to throw away broken bric-a-brac and old furniture and old letters that are of no earthly use to anyone. There is the further danger of establishing false standards of value through the artificial emphasis upon rarities; snobbishness and pedantry and specious reputability feed upon the "pretentious rubbish" of the collector. Whether as an avocation to supplement and enrich the everyday activities, or as the chief interest in life, collecting in some form or other serves to give color and intensity to the later years.

The things the child acquires, whether in the early unconscious stage, or in the later deliberate, purposeful and systematic stage, are valued as expansions of the personality; and property has its true significance just in so far as it adds to spiritual stature. There is thus grave danger in the development of property interests on lower levels. Children should be encouraged to explore, to concentrate, and to clear the deck for what has been selected as worth while. But always explore further, and clear away what has been rejected, or what is unused. Try out everything, but not all at one time. The unused and the duplicate should make way for what is of relatively lasting interest. The collection may be the nucleus of a museum or of a competence; it may also be the beginning of a barbarous junk heap, or of miserliness.

The child's attitude toward the property of others
is a gradual development from his exclusive and

jealous interest in his own. It is possible in the early years to teach a child to consider the rights of others, and certainly to refrain from abusing other people's belongings. Later he can transfer to other people the feelings he has about his own things, and eventually come to regard the "rights" of property in the abstract, not as distinguished from the rights of people, but as a phase of human rights.

OUTLINE

1. NATURE AND DEVELOPMENT

- a. Tendency to gather indiscriminately begins at about three years
- b. As pronounced in girls as in boys; may take different forms
- c. Gradually specialized under external influences
 - (1) Nature of available objects
 - (2) Fashions — imitation and suggestion
 - (3) Curiosity
 - (4) Sentiment
- d. Stimulated by rivalry
 - (1) Admiration and approval
 - (2) Desire to achieve; exploit
- e. Modified by development of esthetic discrimination or taste, and of intellectual powers
 - (1) Development of interest in system
 - (2) Changing interests and sentiments

2. FORMS

- a. Sources
 - (1) Begins with random *gathering* in of miscellaneous articles
 - (2) Grows with reliance upon *gifts*
 - (3) Shifts to seeking *rewards* of "merit"
 - (4) Becomes desire to get as result of *exertion*
 - (5) Usually ends in *pursuit*, in form of trade or barter

b. Incidence

- (1) Odds and ends
- (2) Bits of colored material — ribbons, glass, stone
- (3) Pictures, coins, stamps
- (4) Nature objects — insects, minerals, feathers, flowers
- (5) Books, autographs, portraits, historic mementoes
- (6) Trophies, souvenirs
- (7) Rarities, antiques, objects of vertu, the unique
- (8) An element in "business interest"

3. BENEFITS

- a. Develops unifying interests and purposes, leading to concentration of effort
- b. Gives stimulus to planning and exertion
- c. Develops special knowledge, relative expertness and discrimination, ideas of order and classification
- d. Leads to wider exploration into world of people and things
- e. Furnishes basis of consideration for the property rights of others
- f. Furnishes suggestions for later hobbies — "nature's antidote against future boredom"

4. DANGERS

- a. Loss of perspective through overemphasis
- b. Ruthlessness through overintensity
- c. Accumulation of useless junk
- d. Relegation to idleness of useful objects and materials
- e. Forcing of artificial interests and values, development of exclusiveness, snobbishness, or pedantry on basis of the "pretentious rubbish"
- f. Enthusiast may become a bore

5. CONTROL

- a. Explore; the child should be encouraged to search for new fields
- b. Concentrate; the child should be encouraged to work his immediate interest as intensively as possible, with regard to time and energy and other demands

- c. Advance; do not attach too much significance to the material or the form of the collection at any given time
- d. Clear the deck; the child should be constantly encouraged to get rid as completely as may be of the objects he is no longer "collecting" and of the "duplicates" he has — both to make room for new things, and to avoid idleness of the "useful"

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* 20. CLUBS AND GANGS

The undifferentiated gregariousness which, in the young child, finds comfort in the mere presence of others, gradually gives way to a more discriminating segregation of the like-minded. The boys and girls will flock by themselves; and soon a number of boys cling together sufficiently to constitute a gang. They are apparently held together about as much by their aversion to other folks, especially older folks, as by what they find interesting in one another. The groupings of girls are not, as a rule, either so large, so coherent, or so persistent as are those of boys. Girls seem to be more easily satisfied with closer and more restricted intimacies.

The activities of these groups vary from communal dawdling to the most ambitious projecting of and preparation for grand adventures on land and sea. For the most part, however, they consist of playing games, fighting other gangs, hunting or fishing, robbing orchards, annoying unpopular neighbors, and holding secret meetings in the rôle of pirates or highwaymen. Occasionally these gangs persist, especially in the larger cities, in the form of athletic or social clubs.

As in most of the spontaneous manifestations of children's impulses, these groupings and activities have in them both dangers and potentialities of great social and personal value. The great danger lies in the fact that leadership is random, that the community

too easily antagonizes the group and its members, and that no provision appears for the stimulation of the further development of the gang's virtues. The possibilities for making valuable contributions to the development of its members and to the community as a whole, appear from the very characteristics that distinguish the "bad" gang — extreme loyalty, readiness for self-sacrifice, and the spirit of coöperation and fidelity. These are all forces making for a high degree of solidarity. If this solidarity is enabled to expand to the larger community, the result is in every respect desirable.

A recognition of the possibilities latent in the gang conspired with other forces about 1910, resulted in systematic efforts to organize and standardize gang interests, gang activities, and gang virtues into the "Boy Scouts" and kindred organizations. Similar experiments in large numbers were made on a small scale in this country and various European countries twenty or more years earlier. The Boy Scout movement started at a time when all the conditions were favorable, and when a few leaders of ability and imagination were available. Although boys do not, as a rule, accept as readily as do girls direction of their gangs from without, these large organizations have operated in a manner that removes the appearance of external direction, and that provides all the conditions favorable to the stimulation of the very best of the social impulses of youth.

OUTLINE

1. THE INTEGRATION OF GANGS
 - a. Spontaneous aggregation
 - b. Separation from outsiders
 - c. Development of common group interests
 - d. Appearance of leadership
 - e. Sex differences
2. THE ACTIVITIES

(More distinctive with boys)

 - a. Hunting, fishing, etc.
 - b. Quest of adventure
 - c. Tribal occupations
 - d. Fighting other gangs
 - e. Athletics and games
3. EFFECTS OF THE GANG
 - a. The gang virtues, tribal virtues
 - (1) "Be loyal to friend, be liar to enemy"
 - (2) Obedience to law (of the gang)
 - (3) Self-sacrifice
 - (4) Coöperation
 - (5) Solidarity
 - b. The dangers
 - (1) Anti-social fixation
 - (2) Dissipation and failure to mature
 - (3) Misdirection through vicious leadership
 - c. The possibilities
 - (1) Discipline of the individual
 - (2) Development of social consciousness
 - (3) Adjustment of personality to others
4. DIRECTION AND GUIDANCE
 - a. Help in organization
 - b. Legitimization
 - c. Provision of meeting place
 - d. Standardization of pursuits and procedure
 - e. Formulation of ideals
 - f. Educational possibilities in Boy Scout and kindred movements
 - g. Utilization for systematic education
 - h. Possibilities for mixed clubs (boys and girls)

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21. TRAVEL AND ADVENTURE

The instinct to wander is almost universal, at least just before maturity. The reason we do not all become vagrants lies apparently not so much in our indifference to new scenes and experiences, as in our ability to adjust ourselves more or less satisfactorily to a settled life.

The impulse to move forth will show itself in most children as soon as there is reached a combination of facility in locomotion with an imagination that extends beyond the horizon — that is to say, in about the fourth year. The desire to see what lies around the corner or over the hill is perfectly legitimate; and its satisfaction with the coöperation of an adult may prevent the more dangerous surreptitious exploratory flight, or the strain and chafing of unfulfilled longing. The impulse is likely to attain its greatest force during adolescence, when it combines with other forces that push the child out of the monotony of his earlier routine.

The desire to wander is related intellectually to curiosity, and emotionally to the romantic search for adventure and mystery. It would seem more profitable to deal with it in a constructive attempt to find satisfying indulgences and substitutes, rather than to suppress it. Excursions and hikes can be arranged in most cases, even where extensive travel is precluded. To a certain extent reading and pictures and the movies and theater can be made to serve as satisfying substitutes.

Not all runaways are to be attributed to the presence of an exceptional urge. Under special circumstances, every boy and every girl will become aware of the desire to escape annoyance, or humiliation, or unpleasant tasks of home or school. Many runaways are due to a temporary weakening of inhibition or control, or to a sudden whim, related to an accumulation of annoyances, or to friction with everyday associates. In tracing runaway escapades to the suggestiveness of the movies or of lurid literature, we must not overlook the fact that these suggestions pertain only to the *form* which the adventure may take, and do not initiate anything foreign to the thought or feelings of the child. The impulse to run away, as distinguished from the more continuous love of travel and adventure, is sporadic and dependent upon acute dissatisfaction or discontent rather than upon positive desires. It is negative in the sense that it represents the desire to get away from the present, rather than a seeking of something else, however vaguely defined.

It seems to be fairly well established that in certain extreme and persistent forms the instinct to wander, termed "nomadism" by Davenport, following Lowell, is a definitely inherited trait. Nomadism occurs more often in boys than in girls for apparently the same reason that color-blindness does, namely, that it is due to a "sex-linked" character-determiner, which is transmitted through daughters to grandsons: a girl manifests this trait only if both her father and her maternal grandfather have it. This trait is more likely to be common in the pioneering stock of a young country than in more settled peoples.

In such inherited nomadism the danger is that it will not be recognized early enough to receive adequate opportunity and stimulation for diversion into useful channels. The nomadic impulse in a farm lad of the prairies may take him to sea as a runaway and a stowaway; but with a recognition of the tendency in childhood it should be possible to plan not only for systematic and legitimate outlets, but for systematic training for some occupation that makes use of the impulse in a constructive way. The genius of the great explorers and travelers probably has as one of its components this impulse to go out into the unknown, to move from place to place, on without end. One need not become an itinerant tinker; there are many respectable and worth-while occupations open to the individual for whom remaining in one place involves too great a strain.

OUTLINE

1. NATURE AND ORIGIN OF IMPULSE
 - a. Relation to curiosity and romance
 - b. Normal, universal trait
 - c. Extreme form inherited
 - d. Morbid origins
2. MANIFESTATIONS
 - a. Childish runaways
 - b. Preadolescent and adolescent escapes
 - c. Permanent wanderers
 - d. Casual runaways
3. TREATMENT
 - a. Direct and authorized satisfaction of impulse
 - (1) Excursions
 - (2) Hikes, camping trips, etc.
 - (3) Travel

b. Substitutes

- (1) Reading
- (2) Theater
- (3) Pictures
- (4) Museums
- (5) Movies

c. Sublimation

Selection of and training for occupation that involves travel

[See list of such occupations in Davenport's paper]

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22. NATURE IN THE LIFE OF THE CHILD

Very few "educated" men and women brought up in modern cities would be able, if suddenly thrown upon their own resources, to find their way about in the woods, to say nothing of finding necessary food, securing shelter, or building a fire, without the sophisticated appliances that are purchased at the store. There is, of course, no good reason why civilized people should either return to the savage state or even acquire the primitive arts of life for which the modern community furnishes few outlets. But there are substantial values to be derived from occasional or frequent returns to the primitive, for like Antaeus we gain fresh strength from every contact with mother earth.

It is important for children to acquire early in life both the direct benefits of experience with the world of nature and such fondness for similar experiences as will insure their continued recourse to them.

For the child not too much hampered by city life there is a wide range of satisfactions to be had from the direct contact with outdoor things, animate and inanimate. There is no substitute for the emotional and intellectual values which the child may derive from a certain intimacy with living things of other species. Aside from the direct satisfactions which their companionship and his occupation with their care yield, the keeping of pets, whether plant or animal, opens the way for a wide range of supplementary activities,

furnishes a large body of useful information, and establishes habits of feeling and action that are of lasting benefit. From such pets the child learns the concrete foundations of organic existence in food, water, suitable temperature, the removal of waste, and so on — principles that are readily carried over to his personal hygiene or to the practical problems of community and home.

On the side of responsibility, the child quickly realizes the need for doing correctly and regularly things whose omission brings suffering or death. The daily contact with plants or animals furnishes to those children who do not live in the country amid domesticated animals and crop plants an excellent opening for that body of knowledge and interpretation concerning sex which it is so essential to get early in life.

Fishing and hunting represent very early forms of activity which still appeal strongly to man of to-day, and which show themselves in the almost irresistible desire to throw stones at birds and squirrels, to stalk animals, and to let the mind wander afield through the open windows with the first smell of spring. If we consider the destruction of living things in response to these impulses to be too inexcusably wanton, it is possible to develop satisfying substitutes, as in the hobby of "shooting" game with a camera. At any rate, the lure of the wild or of the water is there and deserving of large concessions, both for the physical health it makes available and for the release it offers from the strains of the artificialities of house and city.

Outdoor life offers acquaintanceship with the significant facts of the material world, with the lessons

of inexorable law, with the silences for meditation, with limitless space for perspective. The way to these joys and values to be found in companionship with nature should be opened for every child early in his travels. The activities of the canoe or hunting trip, of the long hike, or even of the cross-country tour and the fixed camp, draw constantly upon the ingenuity and resourcefulness of the boy or girl, upon initiative and upon self-reliance. Far from the markets for standardized goods and services, one must either find a way or learn to do without. The lessons of coöperation, forbearance and considerateness are no less marked.

There are substantial difficulties in the way of keeping animal companions in most town or city homes; but they are worth overcoming if that is at all possible. On the other hand, in the more crowded communities there are developments that make possible for children the valuable contacts with living things through the utilization of the common resources, such as the school, menagerie, garden, and so on.

Since it is not possible for most families to manage the combined advantages of city and country life for their children, various schemes are being developed to provide for an increasing number of children the opportunities of adequate outdoor experience. Moreover, we cannot expect that merely living in the country will automatically insure for the child the values under consideration. Just as the city child needs help for understanding and appreciating the multitude of appliances and contrivances that characterize his environment, the country child needs to have his attention directed to the variety and behavior and

relationships of living things, to the properties and peculiarities of inanimate materials and objects, to the skies and the seasons, and so on. Our city children are for the present, however, receiving most attention. Besides a considerable variety of summer camps and boarding schools located in the country, there are country day schools in the neighborhood of many a large city, the city playground, increasing numbers of city forests, city gardens, the play school, the various organizations that occupy boys or girls with outdoor activities, and the excursions that are possible to a degree in almost every school.

OUTLINE

1. THE BASIC NEED FOR CONTACT WITH THE OUTDOORS
 - a. The satisfaction of primitive impulses and companionship
 - b. The health factors
 - c. Joyous occupation and formation of hobbies
 - d. Release from the strains of complex city life
2. INTELLECTUAL ASPECTS
 - a. Acquaintance with the facts of inanimate nature — weather, the stars, land, water, etc.
 - b. Objective knowledge about living things — requirements of living things; their nature, their capacities, their limitations — basis for sex knowledge and attitudes
 - c. The constant evidence of inexorable law or uniformity
 - d. The solitudes and silences for thinking
 - e. Counteraction of superstitious traditions and attitudes
3. EMOTIONAL ASPECTS
 - a. The moods of nature
 - b. The effect of vastness on sense of perspective and poise
 - c. Development of esthetic interests
 - d. Demands of living things upon child's tenderness and consideration

- e. Aid in overcoming fear
- f. Relation to responsibility
- 4. **SOCIALIZING ASPECTS**
 - a. Coöperation reduced to its elements
 - b. Character effects of games
 - c. Discovery of abilities and resources
 - d. Development of self-reliance
 - e. Demand upon initiative
- 5. **SPECIAL PROVISIONS FOR CITY CHILDREN**
 - a. Use of public grounds for gardens and camp sites
 - b. Cultivation of plants and animals in school and at home
 - c. Wider use of public gardens and menageries
 - d. Summer camps
 - e. Special organizations

Scouts	Pioneer Youth
Woodcraft League	Campfire Girls, etc.
 - f. Playgrounds
 - g. Excursions
 - h. Country day schools
 - i. Country boarding schools
 - j. Play schools

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✓23. BOOKS AND READING

Books constitute for most children one of the most potent sources of inspiration and guidance. Their selection is important at every stage, because it will determine both how far children will continue to resort to books, as well as the kinds of influence the books will, for the time being, exert.

Books yield not only the information which they record, but moral guidance and stimulus, interpretation and insight into life, vicarious adventure and pastime. Yet we must not expect every book to yield all of these values. It is sufficient if a given book does only one or another of the many useful things that a book can do.

The desirability of a book will depend not upon the number of different tasks that it performs, but on how well it meets its main purpose. The information in a book should be reliable. The sentiment it breathes should be sound, the text should be well written, and its style and illustrations should be in good taste. From the viewpoint of a particular child a book should be interesting, it should supply his needs, and it should address him on his proper intellectual level.

These specifications, however, do not imply a static test of good books, nor the possibility of selecting "best" books. The growing child is normally shifting his interests; what was a very interesting book yesterday, is to-day stale, flat, and unprofitable. His intellectual growth requires a graded body of reading.

Needs and interests change with the seasons and with fashions. Events of local or of temporary importance will call for a line of reading far from universal or permanent. Historical celebrations or other special occasions will determine what is best for the time and place.

Further modifications of the good as well as of the best will arise from the fact that changes are constantly taking place in the arts and sciences, and the child's reading should keep him measurably in sight of what will concern his contemporaries in the years to come and not restrict him to what startled his ancestors. Moreover, there are constant developments in social and public life which reflect themselves in fiction as well as in books of travel, biography, poetry, and even of a technical sort, as in books on means of transportation and communication. The child's reading, however, should not be confined to the new any more than to the old. Acquaintance with certain classics is a necessary part of the individual's equipment. Folk and fairy tales of many peoples not only enrich later reading and supply satisfying nurture to the child's imagination, but they furnish a valuable introduction to the customs and thinking of far-away peoples, thus meeting the normal travel interest. It nevertheless remains true that many of the fairy tales need careful editing to make them of greatest value to our children.

In increasing numbers new books are forthcoming that have the merits of the old with certain advantages that the old can never have. This is particularly true in the development of imaginative stories, which are of such great value to young children. When fairy

tales were alone available in this field they were used and preferred to other types of literature. But the application of keener insight into the child's mind to the writing of special books for children will gradually replace certain of the older fairy tales, much to the benefit of the children.

In the purchase of books for children we meet the constant temptation of sets or series which offer to save us the trouble of selecting what is worth while or especially desirable. These sets, however, assume standardized children, standardized needs, standardized "best" reading. Their purchase does indeed save considerable effort, but it also cuts off an avenue of mutual interest between parent and child, since it delegates and dismisses a function which should be continuously exercised — that of deciding from time to time what is most valuable for this particular child in the present circumstances. The complete set, moreover, will be sure to contain a considerable amount of dead material, and its installation loses the stimulating value of novelty, which each separate book could bring with it.

Even in the case of books intended chiefly as sources of information, it is better to get the child accustomed to consult specialized sources of information and authoritative encyclopedias rather than diluted compendia of universal knowledge, written down and frequently distorted in the effort to adapt it to immature minds. There is a certain air of finality in all such compilations which leaves an undesirable intellectual complacency with the young reader.

There are no doubt many children who can get

nothing from the printed page unless the matter is written down to them; but we should at least give every child an opportunity to sample genuine literature within his comprehension until his limitations disclose themselves. For the adolescent especially is it desirable to provide an introduction to serious fiction rather than permit a continued indulgence in machine-made romance and adventure that help only to fix the outlook and the appreciation at childish levels.

The child should early begin the slow accumulation of his own library, and at the same time learn to read books borrowed from libraries and other sources, for it is well to acquire a discrimination that distinguishes between books that are to be read and dismissed, and books that are to remain permanent resources.

OUTLINE

1. THE VALUE OF READING

- a. Communication from those remote in space and time
- b. Source of information
- c. Interpretation and meanings; aid to insight
- d. Moral guidance
- e. Inspiration and stimulus
- f. Pastime, recreation
- g. Vicarious adventure and experience

2. THE CRITERIA OF BOOKS

- a. Information must be reliable
- b. Sentiment must be sound
- c. Taste must be good
- d. Style and diction

3. THE RELATION OF BOOKS TO THE CHILD

- a. Book must be interesting
 - (1) Individual variation

- (2) Shifting interests
 - Change with age
 - Local and passing occasions
 - (3) Arousing interests
 - b. Book must meet child's needs
 - c. Book must be suited to intellectual level
 - d. Books for adolescents
 - e. Danger of reading as indulgence and withdrawal from reality
4. THE SELECTION OF BOOKS
- a. Need for classics, fairy tales, fables, etc.
 - b. Need for the new
 - (1) Science, discovery, the arts
 - (2) Development of public relations
 - c. Eclectic series *vs.* single books
 - d. Compendia and encyclopedias
 - e. Selection a continuous process
5. BOOKS AND LIBRARIES
- a. Advantage of owning books
 - b. Need for libraries and borrowed books

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24. ART IN THE LIFE OF THE CHILD

Instead of thinking of "art" as something exclusive, reserved for the exceptionally favored few, we must think of it as a common human heritage limited only by our varying capacities to appreciate and to create beauty. From earliest infancy the child manifests satisfactions resulting from mere sensation, such as loud sounds, bright flashes of light or color, sensitiveness of the skin in various parts of the body. From such simple satisfactions with simple stimuli, there gradually emerges a progressive discrimination; sounds are no longer all alike, colors become differentiated, and forms of distinct objects bring varying amounts of satisfaction. The basic principles of art, the characteristics of what all people deem "beautiful," can be felt long before they can be formulated, or even before the philosopher's formulation can be understood. But the appreciation of harmony, the satisfaction with fitness or suitability, and with absence of irrelevance or distraction, are present with all normal children.

For the development of the child's creative impulses, there must be first of all ample freedom for his activities. This does not mean merely leaving him to himself — it means the provision of time and place and materials with which to work or to play. It means also that we must avoid overwhelming the child with an excess of conventionalized forms, whether in the way of nursery rhymes or of pictures to copy or models to mold. In

the second place, there must be the opportunity to acquire an understanding of what may be called the symbolism of art, the fact that one thing may represent another, and may be legitimately used for this purpose. We must not insist upon too great literalness or "veracity" in the child's inventions. Beauty, like truth, takes on a multitude of forms. There must be stimulation to effort, chiefly through quiet encouragement and "constructive criticism," which consists largely of stressing the good points in the child's work and ignoring the others. With broadening experience and the discovery of new possibilities in theme and medium, he learns his own resources as well as his limitations. Instruction and inspiration must come in accordance with the talents.

The experience of music should precede instruction about music or the study of an instrument. People sang and danced for thousands of years before there was any written record of their music. A child who has learned a large number of beautiful melodies "by ear" and whose rhythmic sense has been developed by marching, skipping, dancing, and rhythmic movements in time to music has a fund of musical experience that will be invaluable to him later on, whether he is to play an instrument or not.

Every child can and should be taught to listen happily and intelligently to music in so far as his native capacity will permit, just as he should be taught to appreciate literature, whether he is going to write books or not.

On the side of appreciation, both the home and the school can do much more than is commonly attempted. The influences, commercial and others, that tend to

degrade popular standards of taste need to be recognized and systematically combated by those who value higher standards for their humanizing and socializing effects as well as for the personal satisfactions they yield. The parents who confine their efforts to saving their own children from those degrading influences may find in the end that they have merely oversensitized the chosen few, while the multiplication of ugliness continues unabated. The influence of the furniture and dress and decorations in the child's surroundings, the subtle suggestiveness of everyday comment and criticism, the sights in the street, in public places, in museums, hold great possibilities. With the older child, these influences may well be supplemented by lectures and literature.

In so far as "interpretation" is wholly or chiefly esthetic, it proceeds from a sympathetic imitation of the model and is found for all the arts at a relatively low stage in the child's development. Interpretation as an intellectual process begins usually with the attempt to analyze or evaluate more complex art forms, such as poetry or drama. In the history of critical thinking and literature the treatment of drama, poetry, painting, sculpture, and architecture precedes attempts to interpret music and the dance. In the development of the individual a parallel is found, and in most cases interest in intellectual or critical interpretation lags far behind the esthetic, or fails to appear at all.

This may be seen on the one hand in the crudest attempts to reproduce whatever comes into the child's experience — the making of pictured or plastic or constructed reproductions of what he sees, for example, or

the humming of a tune to himself, the imitation of some person's voice, the strutting in a special manner. He imitates what catches his fancy. On the other hand, a higher level of interpretation is seen when a child reads a poem aloud, when he dramatizes an episode, when he participates in a more formal dramatization, or when he plays a musical composition on his own initiative. Here there is more than interest in the object, event, or theme; the imagination is stimulated to an interpretive reconstruction of what he has seen in the model. One of the larger values in dramatics lies in this fact that it compels effort to understand character and motive, that it compels effort to interpret human nature as well as the artist's purpose.

OUTLINE

1. ESTHETIC FEELINGS
 - a. Satisfaction from mere
Sensation
Response
Activity
 - b. Discrimination, a process of growth
 - c. Emotional response before the intellectual
2. DEVELOPMENT OF THE CREATIVE IMPULSES
 - a. Freedom
 - b. Stimulation of effort
 - c. Inspiration and instruction
 - d. Understanding of symbolism
 - e. Mastery of technique
3. DEVELOPMENT OF APPRECIATION
 - a. Influence of surroundings
 - b. Social aspects
 - c. Suggestions and guidance
 - d. Use of museums
 - e. Instruction and literature

4. GRADING OF THE ARTS

- a. On side of creation
- b. On side of appreciation
- c. On side of interpretation

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25. FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Aside from the traditional overvaluation of foreign language as a mark of culture, or as an adjunct to leisure pursuits, there is a substantial worth in the mastery of such languages both for purposes of personal power and satisfaction, and for purposes of commercial or other vocational application.

The acquisition of a foreign language during childhood, along with the mother tongue, has been shown to carry certain disadvantages, such as the mixing of idioms, the impurity of accent, etc., as well as to have the theoretical disadvantages of obstructing complete mastery of the mother tongue. These disadvantages, which are to a degree dependent upon unsuitable teachers or improper methods, are nevertheless outweighed by the advantage of greater facility of acquiring two or more languages by the "natural" method of imitation and use during the early years. The chief disadvantage of learning foreign languages through tutors or governesses at this time lies in the enforced separation of the child from his companions, both physically during the hours of instruction, and mentally through the reduction in the quantity of common experience and intercommunication.

The systematic teaching of a foreign language to children who are already established in one language tends to follow as closely as possible the natural method, even in the higher grades and in the high schools.

OUTLINE

1. DESIRABILITY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE
 - a. Broadens sympathies
 - b. Makes accessible thought and life of other peoples
 - c. Enhances vocational equipment
 - (1) Commercial
 - (2) Professional
 - d. Enriches appreciation of own language
2. ADVANTAGES OF LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGE EARLY
 - a. Comes most easily as imitation;
Two or three languages apparently learned as easily as one
 - b. Child's tongue more flexible;
Pronunciation becomes more difficult as child gets older
3. DISADVANTAGES OF LEARNING EARLY
 - a. Distracts time and energy from mother tongue
 - b. Decreases sensitiveness to words and sentence structure
 - c. Leads to confusion of words and idioms
 - d. Leaves traces of interfering thought forms
 - e. Leaves traces of impure accents
4. METHODS FOR OLDER CHILDREN
 - a. Replacement of formal methods
 - b. Ascendancy of direct methods
 - c. Appeal to interest
 - d. Use of hearing first, then sight
 - e. Encouragement of pupil through more rapid acquisition of usable fragments of language
 - f. Available at all ages

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26. SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The child acquires the feeling of responsibility gradually. The burden should be graded to correspond to his ability to bear it, and should be steadily increased. The feeling, as distinguished from habits of punctuality, promptness, orderliness, and so on, arises from association with others, from sympathy, and from the imaginative participation in the effects upon others of the various activities in which the children share.

Home responsibilities begin with the care of toys and clothing, with helping in minor tasks, with consideration for the routine of the establishment involving other members of the household, with caring for younger brothers and sisters, and with being relied upon to help the elders occasionally or regularly. School responsibilities begin with punctuality, which is primarily a social virtue, having to do with time values of others and with the routine of a group.

In relation to other children on the playground, social responsibility arises out of the feeling of fair play, out of consideration for the rights of others, and out of the idea of non-interference which playground experience develops. In organized groups involving teamwork, excursions, camping, and so on, the feeling of responsibility acquires wider scope. The more progressive schools, both elementary and high, in all parts of the country, are giving children increasing opportunity to share in the responsibility of the regular

class work as a social project. The so-called "socialized recitation" partakes of a great variety of forms, but always seeks to furnish the children actual practice in the social virtues, especially responsibility.

In addition, however, to making good followers who acknowledge authority and accept leadership as necessary for safety, coördination of effort and progress, we need further to develop that higher level of responsibility which challenges authority when occasion arises, which questions routine and rules. Democracy requires that children, after learning to follow the rules, learn further that rules are convenient devices for facilitating human relations and procedure, and that we are answerable for improving upon the rules or even for overthrowing them. The responsibility for leadership is quite as urgent as that for followership.

In general, the feeling of responsibility, once well started grows with the child's experience in social relationships. As the child feels himself a member of a larger and larger group or community, his responsibility will be transferred to the members of the larger group, or to the group as a whole; and conversely, his feeling of the larger group will grow with the experience which he shares with members in the larger relationship. The problem is to make the child conscious of himself in his capacity of group membership, or to feel himself as the representative of the group, so that his decisions and attitudes can be justified in terms of the general need or welfare. This end can be reached only through much and varied experience in different social relationships, through inspiring examples of conduct manifesting the desired attitudes, and through guidance in the

formulation of those ideals and general principles that mark the highly evolved types of social and moral adjustment.

OUTLINE

1. WHAT THE HOME MUST TEACH

a. Orderliness

- (1) Things must be in their place, or we shall suffer; toys, clothing, furniture, and appliances in the room
- (2) People must be in their places on time, or we shall suffer; the routine of the household

b. Kindness

- (1) Helpfulness makes us all happier
- (2) Attitude toward paid helpers
- (3) Hospitality toward strangers within the house, visitors

c. Considerateness

- (1) Keeping engagements
- (2) Carrying out instructions
- (3) Sharing in work
- (4) Finding the purpose, not merely the words or rules
- (5) Reliability of word or promise

2. APPLICATION AND GROWTH IN THE SCHOOL

a. Punctuality required by orderliness and considerateness

b. Observation of routine necessary for the protection of individual rights

c. Recognition of authority or leadership necessary for

- (1) Safety (*e.g.*, fire drill)
- (2) Expedition
- (3) Progress

d. Questioning of routine and rules necessary for democracy

- (1) Rules and regulations as empirical devices
- (2) Rules subject to change with conditions; with inventiveness and improvements

(3) Responsibility of individual toward improvement of rules, etc.

e. Sharing responsibility

3. GROWTH AND APPLICATION AT PLAY

a. Non-interference, from experience with grabbing and jostling of others

b. Fair play, from experience with unfairness of others, and with the group's penalties for unfairness

c. Teamwork, from experience in joint enterprises and later from games involving division of labor or special functions

4. GROWTH AND APPLICATION IN THE COMMUNITY

a. The thoroughfare: open to all, used by all, the concern of all

(1) To maintain

(2) To keep clean

(3) To use considerately

b. Parks, playgrounds, etc.: these, too, are ours, for joint use involves mutual obligations of consideration

c. Public gatherings, theater, concert, etc.: principle of non-interference

d. Attitude toward strangers; general courtesy; help to those seeking directions, information, etc.

e. Public spirit: the call of the community for help

f. I am my brother's keeper

5. METHODS

a. Manifestation of attitude on part of parents, teachers, etc.

b. Interpretation of difficulties and demands, rather than inculcation of mottoes, etc.

c. Aid in formulation of ideals and general principles, on basis of experience and discussion

d. Opportunity for participation in home activities

e. Organization of joint activities in school

(1) For school service

(2) For community service

- f. Training in parliamentary procedure in clubs, school classes, etc.

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27. CIVIC INTERESTS

Civilization is an outgrowth of man's irresistible gregariousness, which compels him either to learn to get along passably well with others, or to withdraw from the society of others. The process of learning begins almost with birth, but it is not always continued to the point of making a person both an independent spirit and an acceptable member of a highly complex community — two ends that are indispensable if life is to be entirely satisfying. Through his contacts with others the child eventually discovers himself as a distinct personality, and then he proceeds to attach those others to himself and to make them his own in a very real sense.

From the common experiences with those nearest him, he comes to identify himself with them; he is sensitive to their approval, their rebukes, their indifference; and to get from them the most satisfying reactions, he is willing to do what will please them, he learns the meaning of service.

As the child extends the circle of his acquaintances from his immediate family to other children and adults in his surroundings, to the school, the gang, the neighborhood, and as he learns of the larger community of his city, state and the human race, it is necessary for him to enlarge his sympathies proportionately, if he is not to remain an outcast hermit, or a partially socialized gangster, or a narrow provincial. The gang is im-

portant in cultivating certain social virtues of attitude and conduct; the large community is essential for broadening and harmonizing the interests and impulses.

In infancy and early childhood the suggestibility of the child unconsciously and automatically accepts the leadership of the adults;} but as the child comes to be aware of himself and to experiment with himself, he becomes disposed to challenge arbitrary authority; and unless completely repressed, will persist in his resistance to tyranny, whether of the parents or of the school, whether of the local bully or of the political usurper. In a democracy the child should always have before him the opportunity to choose his associates and his leaders, if only for experience in sampling human beings for his purposes.

Even young children have sufficient feeling for regularity and order to accept the idea of a rule or a law as guide to conduct; and from infancy this can be well cultivated through a fairly rigid routine in the details pertaining to personal health, sleeping, eating, etc., etc. Children readily accept rules of a game and it is important for them to learn that while existing rules are to be obeyed, both laws and rules are practical devices to facilitate human affairs, not to interfere; and that laws, like rules, are subject to change by established methods, as changing human needs dictate.

Much of the "lawlessness" and of the anti-social spirit found in youth, especially in the larger cities, may be avoidable through more thorough and effective schooling. But we must not overlook the fact that much of it is simply a reflex of the prevailing attitude of homes and of prominent members of the community,

whose glaring violations of the welfare of others are not always followed by the traditional wages of sin. We cannot expect the children to be any better than the rest of the community. We cannot expect the school to counteract altogether the prevailing ideology. We cannot expect the teachers to produce any substantial change in the attitudes of the rising citizenry without the wholehearted and energetic support of the rest of the community, or at least of its more influential fraction.

OUTLINE

1. RELATION OF INDIVIDUAL TO OTHERS
 - a. Early interest of child in other people
 - b. Discovers himself because of others
 - c. Forms attachments to most intimates
 - d. Necessity for learning to adjust
2. DEVELOPMENT OF SOLIDARITY
 - a. Community interest with own people
 - b. Identifying self with own people
 - c. Desire to get approval and to please
 - d. Desire to serve
3. EXPANSION OF GROUP
 - a. From family, to neighborhood, etc.
 - b. Extension to school
 - c. The socializing effect of the gang
 - d. Need for progressive expansion of sympathies and interests
4. RELATION TO LEADERSHIP
 - a. Suggestibility of child
 - b. Tendency to form personal attachments
 - c. Resistance to tyranny
 - d. Experience in selection of leaders

5. FROM PERSONALITY TO LAW
 - a. Child's love of regularity and regulation
 - b. Rules of the game
 - c. Respect for law *versus* fear of law
6. CIVIC ATTITUDE
 - a. Reflection of home and community
 - b. Teachings of school
 - c. Public spirit

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✓ 28. RELIGIOUS TRAINING

Religion plays an important rôle in the development of the personality and character of the child. Yet it is impossible at the present time to formulate either a definition of religion or a program of religious training that would be acceptable to the majority of adults, whether professional students of the subject or mere laymen.

On the one hand we find theories of right and wrong closely tied up with religious views, traditions and conventions. On the other hand we find religious theories intimately associated with theologies and with speculations concerning the ultimate meaning and nature of man and the universe.

It has seemed best, therefore, to present the most helpful reference books on the psychology of religion and on religious training, leaving it to the individual and the group to adapt the deep thought and the scientific study which these books represent to their own needs.

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29. CHOOSING A VOCATION

Most people do not choose occupations; they drift into jobs. And for most people the job is not a fulfillment and satisfaction of natural and legitimate cravings, but a necessary and disagreeable grind. For the normal child, the first need is an opportunity to become acquainted with the kinds of work that the world needs to have done — not merely in an academic sense, but through direct contact and concrete sampling of the activities and experiences that make up the work. In the next place he needs to acquire an attitude of workmanship, of interest in and desire for work — work as activity, as means of self expression, and as instrument of service. And finally, he must get a set of standards or criteria of values with respect to work — what the world has a right to demand of the worker, and what the worker has a right to expect from the work and from the world in return. In each of these three aspects of the child's adjustment to the problem of finding his occupation, the child is influenced by the material and the spiritual surroundings, whether at home or in school, or in the community at large.

In practice, the child's work should normally be an outgrowth of his play and study. Every day the new experiences actually serve to discover new interests and capacities, and there is a gradual selection influenced by the satisfactions derived from the various experiences,

by the approval or disapproval of teachers and parents and fellows, by the esteem in which the representatives of various callings are held in the community, by the outward and visible signs of social grace which these representatives manifest. The interests of the child show a progression corresponding to intellectual and emotional development, but determined as to form by what he sees going on around him. With this progression there should be a differentiation that eventually leads to the selection of main lines of activity. While the interest in a specialized activity is valuable in focusing application and effort, the "life career motive" should not be overworked, since it is undesirable to force early specialization. On the other hand, the interests manifested at any given time, whether in being a policeman or an Indian chief, may properly be employed to further the establishment of those ideals or habits that constitute the distinctive virtues of the calling in question.

In the choice of an occupation, as in the evolution of ideals, the child is influenced by his reading, the pictures he sees, the conversations he overhears, and by obscure flows of feeling, at least as much as by the explicit and deliberate teachings of elders. In the same way, too, choice may be influenced by defects or by exceptional acuteness of one or another sense organ, by timidities or fears or curiosities acquired early in life. A frustration with a resultant stimulation of effort, an inferiority complex with a resultant attempt at compensation, may become factors in the choice of occupation.

By attempting to use forethought and intelligence

we can unquestionably get better results than arise from the policy of drift. But there is danger in attempting to obtain short cuts, whether through the premature specialization of training, or through some esoteric determination of ability — phrenology, palmistry, astrology and other weird cults are always ready to serve. On the other hand, increasing knowledge of the significant factors in the unfolding of ability will give us progressively better insight into the individual child, and systematic tests of various kinds are becoming daily more useful in detecting limitations and capacities. But in the end concrete performance in a variety of activities will serve most helpfully in determining what boys and girls can or can not do well.

OUTLINE

1. WHAT AN OCCUPATION IS TO THE INDIVIDUAL
 - a. A body of specialized activities
 - b. A means of self-expression
 - c. A means for gaining recognition or approval
 - d. A means of rendering service
 - e. A source of income
2. IMPORTANCE OF VOCATIONAL ADJUSTMENT
 - a. Economy of adequate distribution of workers
 - b. Contribution to happiness of individuals
 - c. Danger of invidious stratification of occupations
3. VOCATIONS AND HUMAN TALENTS
 - a. There is no necessary correlation between talents and socially needed services
 - b. There is no necessary correlation between a child's admirations and his abilities
 - c. The genius finds a new way of doing useful things
 - d. Mediocrity can follow suit
 - e. Social changes eliminate occupations and make way for new ones

4. THE CHILD'S NEED FOR SELF-DISCOVERY

- a. An acquaintance with the kinds of work the world needs to have done through actual work experience
- b. An interest in and desire for work
- c. Standards of value with respect to work
 - (1) Social or ethical justification
 - (2) Its contribution to the worker
 - (3) Its demand upon the worker — physically, spiritually, socially

5. THE PROCESS

- a. Self-revelation and development through play
- b. Transition from play to work
- c. Progressive differentiation of interests and preferred activities — in play, in work, in study, through the action of
 - (1) Inherent factors of sensitiveness and capacities
 - (2) Models for imitation
 - (3) Approval or disapproval of teachers and parent
 - (4) The community's esteem for types of service or personality, or mode of living
 - (5) Suggestion from reading, etc.
 - (6) Deliberate guidance
 - (7) Personal limitations and emotional reactions

6. STANDARDIZED PROCEDURE

- a. Danger of short cuts and charlatanism
- b. Danger of early specialization
- c. School and home observations
- d. Records of changing tastes, interests, preferences, etc.
- e. Systematic tests
 - (1) Psychological
 - (2) Scholastic
 - (3) Specialized trade tests, etc.
- f. Try-out experiences in school and industry
- g. Use of life-career motive and other sources of stimulation

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✓ 30. COEDUCATION

The traditional separation of boys and girls during their schooling rested upon the different status of men and women. With increasing access to economic opportunities, education of girls was gradually extended until arbitrary restrictions are no longer tolerated. The separation of the sexes in educational institutions, wherever it exists, is at present justified on the ground of native and permanent differences between the sexes, requiring a differentiated treatment of boys and girls.

Although the development of public schools for all children compelled coeducation in the lower grades for reasons of economy, this method has been increasingly adopted in secondary and higher schools on the ground that it ^{coeducational} best serves the major aims of education. At present, approximately ninety per cent of the children in secondary schools of this country are in coeducational institutions; and about two thirds of the young women attending colleges and universities are in coeducational institutions.

The opposition to coeducation for high school and college grades rests upon differences in the rate of development between the sexes, differences in physical endurance, danger of social distractions, and need for differentiating studies. On the other hand, coeducation is not only more economical from an administrative viewpoint, but it promotes cooperation and democracy

between the sexes, trains in necessary social intercourse, and diminishes sexual immorality.

The tendency in all education is to widen opportunity for differentiated studies adapted to needs of various groups or individuals. Accordingly, coeducation of the sexes need not mean an identical program of studies, or identical methods of instruction for all. It means merely that a large part of the child's experience is to be shared with other children — including those of the opposite sex. This permits at every stage endless adjustments in accordance with the needs of the individual and in accordance with the needs of various groups, including boys or girls.

OUTLINE

1. HISTORICAL

- a. Schools for boys only
- b. Admission of girls to school
- c. Establishment of schools for girls
- d. Distinction between elementary and higher education

2. PRESENT USAGE

- a. In the United States
 - (1) City and country
 - (2) Eastern and Western regions
 - (3) Elementary and higher schools
 - (4) Public and private schools
- b. In other countries
 - (1) England and Scotland
 - (2) France
 - (3) Germany
 - (4) Sweden
 - (5) Italy
 - (6) Canada and Australia

3. OPPOSITION TO COEDUCATION

- a. Sexes develop unevenly from 11th to 15th year
- b. Boys suffer from competition with girls in secondary school period
 - (1) Precocity of girls
 - (2) Self-confidence of girls
- c. Social life may become too intense
- d. Girls predominate in high school, making boys lose interest in studies and leave school
- e. Intensive work too severe for girls in higher grades
- f. Girls fail to develop certain finer feminine qualities
- g. Boys fail to develop certain virile qualities
- h. Differentiation of studies according to physical, cultural, vocational, and social needs is retarded

4. ARGUMENTS FOR COEDUCATION

- a. It is more economical
- b. It makes for equality and democracy
- c. It promotes capacity for coöperation
- d. It makes for better mutual understanding, and for a wholesome disillusionment
- e. It diminishes immorality
- f. It increases mutual respect on intellectual level
- g. It facilitates acquisition of ease in social intercourse
- h. It makes for development of more flexible types of school administration

5. PRESENT TENDENCIES

- a. Extension of secondary school organization into lower grades
- b. Recognition by schools of responsibility for meeting wider range of needs — physical, vocational, civic, cultural
- c. Increasing opportunities for individualized or other differentiated program in composite schools
- d. A school for all the children, but not treating all alike

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31. SCHOOL

It is no longer possible to think of school as a place where children may be taught certain specific things that could as well, if less conveniently, be taught at home. While the home must retain its primacy in relation to the growth and guidance of children, the school has already taken over types of service that the home cannot at all supply. From the point of view of the child, the school furnishes experiences within the group that are not available at home. From the point of view of the parents, the school has the machinery for continuously reorganizing and transmitting new achievements, new ideas, new discoveries, that no home can possibly duplicate. From the point of view of society, the school is a means for integrating attitudes and understandings for common ends. The teaching of the three R's, or of any number of special arts that might just as well be taught by some other agency, comes to be a relatively minor part of the school's business. The forces that have brought this condition about are also lengthening the school life of every individual by extension in opposite directions — into the earlier years or the pre-school period, and into the adult period.

The public school is accepted as a matter of course for the masses of a community's children, both for social and for economic considerations. There remains, nevertheless, a continuing need for private and endowed schools of various kinds. These have their uses in

relation to the special needs of exceptional children and to the special interests of various groups; but they have also an important function for the public that maintains the common schools. It is almost entirely through private enterprise that special needs are today being discovered and special methods for meeting these needs are being worked out. It is from these various private undertakings that the public eventually obtains the technique and organization for discovering and serving all kinds of exceptional groups — the crippled or the blind, the feeble-minded or the “cardiac,” the artistic or the undernourished. Moreover, the service of the perfectly “normal” children is also being constantly improved as a result of experimental work done in various special schools. Gradually, however, public school systems and schools connected with universities and teachers colleges are taking over the experimental functions. At the same time the groups that for one reason or another seek a separatist education for their children are adopting in practice many of the features that are common to other types of schools, including the public schools.

There is need for more attention to the educational processes and to the aims of the school, on the part of parents, both in the selection of a school for a particular child and in the day-by-day use of the school. With increasing leisure there should come more concern with the aims and methods of the school. This is necessary not only for better coöperation, in the sense of strengthening or supporting the school's efforts, but also for the assistance which the school constantly needs in the form of criticism and suggestion from without. If some

parents obstruct the work of the school by insisting upon what they had themselves received in childhood, others are no more helpful by demanding the newest devices of which they happen to hear. Both as individual and as member of an organization of parents, or of parents and teachers, the school patron must find opportunity to make the school more serviceable to his own children and to the community.

OUTLINE

1. FUNCTIONS OF THE MODERN SCHOOL

- a. Discovery of individual needs
 - Physical health, corrective exercises, etc.
 - Intellectual and emotional
 - Social and moral
- b. Discovery of individual capacities and limitations
 - Vocational, artistic, inventive, etc.
- c. Establishment of standard practice
 - Health maintenance, personal and public
 - Social relationships
 - Technique of work and study
 - Use of language, number, etc.
 - Economy of time and effort
 - Regimen of work, rest, recreation
- d. Constructive stimulation and guidance in use of resources
 - For personal growth and satisfaction
 - For vocational accomplishment
 - For social adjustment
 - For ideal ends
- e. Experimentation
 - In organization and administration; methods
 - In adaptation of material to ends
 - In extension of educational services
 - To reach new groups
 - To meet more specialized needs
 - In coöperation with homes and other agencies for promoting educational aims

2. DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF MODERN SCHOOLS

- a. Attention to grouping of pupils
 - (1) By mental age
 - (2) By social maturity
 - (3) By special capacities or needs
- b. Enrichment of curriculum
 - (1) Increased range of studies
 - (2) Inclusion of other activities
- c. Flexibility of curriculum
- d. Encouragement of creative effort and initiative
- e. Cultivation of discipline through freedom
- f. Acceptance of play as normal and legitimate
- g. Changed position of teacher as guide and friend
- h. Systematic coöperation with home, clinics, library and museum, health officer, etc.

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PART IV. — ORGANIC FOUNDATIONS

32. A SURVEY OF THE CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT

In considering the successive stages of the developing child, we must bear in mind that no two children are exactly alike, and that the rates of development and the degrees of development of the several characters will vary. The stages listed are not sharply separated from one another. The traits mentioned do not show themselves suddenly, but each in its turn gradually becomes distinguishable from the whole mass of actions and feelings. Our control lies in the fact that we can to a large extent determine the kinds of stimulations which the child receives. Our study should discover how the child responds to various kinds of treatment, to various conditions—to the “stimuli” in short—and to find and apply the stimuli which produce the responses leading to desirable types of conduct.

The survey of characteristics that become prominent in the successive stages must be considered only as a tentative approximation. It is neither a record of what any particular child has done, nor a calendar of what any particular child “ought” to do. It is helpful as an “average,” in proportion to the insight we exercise in discovering the meaning of the conduct of the particular child in whom we are interested, and in proportion to the judgment we use in fitting the surroundings, including ourselves, to the child's present needs.

This survey shows that the child develops progressively from a comparatively passive organism dependent upon external stimulations and suggestions to a relatively self-directing personality. So obedience to suggestion or guidance and even command is the condition for establishing habits that are related to fundamental physical and social needs. Gradually this dependence must be replaced by a body of principles and ideals as well as by habit of inquiry and reflection, so that eventually the child becomes both independent and responsible.

At every stage may be observed the gradual differentiation of new capacities, new interests, and new attitudes from an earlier, relatively shapeless mass of activities and feelings. At the same time there is an increasing integration of the various manifestations of inner impulses in subordination to dominating purpose. These facts of development are illustrated by the child's games, by his attitude toward others, by his choice of companions, by his hobbies. The differentiations are most conspicuous during the period of childhood, say from the sixth to the twelfth year; the integration becomes conspicuous during adolescence.

OUTLINE

1. INFANCY — FIRST 11 TO 15 MONTHS

- a. Need for individual care
- b. Movements, reflex and random
- c. Experience of environment, reaction, and self—undifferentiated

2. WALKING-TALKING PERIOD, 2 TO 3 YEARS
 - a. Imitation and discovery of individuals
 - b. Stimuli from language, expression, gesture, etc.
 - c. Separation of sensations from objects
 - d. Separation of emotions from stimuli and action
 - e. Appearance of play as a detached activity
 - f. Imaginations
3. PRE-SCHOOL AGE, 4 TO 6 YEARS
 - a. Self-consciousness
 - b. Self-assertiveness
 - c. Curiosity
 - d. Discovery of *imagined* and *real*
 - e. Appropriation
 - f. Control of larger movements
 - g. Activity
 - h. Play about objects, toys, symbols
4. THE LATENT PERIOD, 6 TO 12 YEARS
 - a. Rivalry
 - b. Pugnacity
 - c. Ambition
 - d. Socialization and loyalties
 - e. Control of smaller movements
 - f. Constructiveness
 - g. Collecting
 - h. Rise and decline of imitativeness (related to competition)
 - i. Emergence of team games
 - j. Adventure (prowess)
 - k. Ready assimilation, drill
5. THE ADOLESCENT AGE, 12 TO 16 YEARS
 - a. Development of puberty
 - b. Sex consciousness
 - c. New interest
 - d. New energies
 - e. New ideals
 - f. Self-discovery and self-determination

6. MATURING PERIOD, 18 TO 24 YEARS

- a. Assimilation of thought and activities of the race
- b. Assumption of place in community, and of responsibility
- c. Participation in the shaping of social destiny

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33. THE CHILD AS AN ORGANISM

Most of us have become accustomed to think of the child, at least after he is able to talk, as a cunning intelligence bent upon mischief or upon the pursuit of inscrutable purposes often resulting in mischief. In fact, however, the child is for the most part quite unconscious of any purposes until he gets well along in years, and most of what he does might better be interpreted as the inevitable result of forces acting upon him and through him than as the calculated result of his planning or desire.

Like an intelligent animal or machine, the child responds to the impressions he receives in a manner determined by his structure and constitution. He is not, to be sure, a purely automatic machine; but his intelligence appears not in doing from the first what is wise or well calculated, but in his capacity to learn enough of himself and of his world to enable him eventually to act wisely or effectively in new situations, to solve problems, to adopt new purposes. This means that we must learn to think of the child and to treat him, at least at first, as a mechanism, and to try to understand his workings.

Again we must recognize that this mechanism differs from our artificial machines in the striking unity of its action and in the intimate interdependence of its parts. Anything happening to the child or going on inside him may affect all his processes: a glare of

light may affect his digestion, his digestion may affect his mood, his mood may affect his breathing or the workings of his heart; and this unity must be observed when we are dealing with his higher intellectual and emotional development as well as when we are concerned merely with his physical health.

The child changes from day to day, not merely in size, but in the relative strength and activity of the various organs, in his interests, and in his capacities. We must recognize this fact of progressive change and not limit his opportunities or our outlook for the future because at a given moment everything seems to go well; nor, on the other hand, need we despair because for the time being there are imperfect adjustments or unhappy incidents. Moreover, we must recognize that the child's progressive development results in part from inner forces, and in part from the very experiences through which he passes day by day. Hence, the importance not alone of "training" as commonly understood, which consists of supplying for the child controlled experiences, but of wise handling of experiences that constantly arise of themselves.

Finally, we must recognize that, like other beings, the child is a unique individual. This does not mean that we must expect of each child the manifestations of genius or some striking peculiarity. It means that each child departs in greater or less degree from the mean or "average" in regard to every characteristic. We must avoid, therefore, the temptation to standardize our expectations and our demands. We must study rather to discover the more-or-less that is distinctive, to accept certain shortcomings as quite normal, to

discover compensations worth cultivating, to adjust our demands to the capacities of the child, and to apply our stimuli and encouragement where they will do the most good.

OUTLINE.

1. THE PHYSICAL BASIS
 - a. Interdependence of organs and functions
 - b. Responsiveness to environment
 - c. Modifications resulting from responses
2. GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT
 - a. Inherent tendency to change
 - b. Dependence upon external factors — physical, mental
 - c. Differences between child and adult
3. INDIVIDUAL VARIATION
 - a. No two alike
 - b. Essential race characters
 - c. Normal range and family variations

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34. HEALTH FACTORS

The body is basic in the sense that it is a primary condition for the manifestation of thought and feeling ; upon its health depend the energy and balance of the mind. The health of the body demands first consideration because it is comparatively easy for many organic functions to become deranged through various physical conditions, and it is comparatively easy for us to control many organic functions through our ability to modify the physical conditions.

Attention must accordingly be given from the start to the conditions that insure physical comfort. These conditions include such factors as food, ventilation, temperature, adequate and regular elimination from the bowels and bladder, abundant sleep, and freedom from irritation, pain, or annoyance.

Notwithstanding the primary importance of physical health, it is impossible, in the day-by-day treatment of the child, to separate the mind from the body. Both his present comfort and his future character and happiness require that we treat the child as a unity, even though we are often obliged in practice to give our attention now to the comfort and demands of this or that special organ, and at another time to conditions that seem to be concerned only with ideas or feelings.

The mental processes and emotional states or moods of the child are easily modified by comparatively slight

departures from normal or routine conditions; and they in turn react vigorously upon the digestion, the circulation, the breathing, and the nerves. The petty frustration that stirs the child's anger, resentment, or shame, the sudden trifle that startles him, may initiate a long chain of serious interferences with the normal vegetative processes. It is also true that extreme pleasurable excitations produce unfavorable reactions, especially through their effects upon the digestive system.

On the other hand, the increased irritability of the fatigued child, the despondency or sulkiness associated with constipation, and the sluggishness of the poorly oxygenated organism illustrate the dependence of essential elements in behavior upon physical conditions. Fatigue, not promptly remedied, is typical of the tendency of many sets of reactions to develop into a chronic state, or a vicious circle. Eyestrain, defective hearing, obstructed breathing, carious teeth, blind abscesses or ulcers, flat feet, and other conditions of stress are common sources of difficulty in the child's development.

We may never be able to solve the puzzle as to the relative importance or primacy of mind and body. We do, however, know what value we place upon those distinctively human qualities that are commonly called the "higher." It is precisely because the organism behaves throughout as a unity that we cannot afford to disregard the bodily phases as being "lower."

OUTLINE

- 1. INTERDEPENDENCE OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM AND OTHER PARTS OF THE BODY**
 - a. The sense organs and the nervous system
 - b. The muscles and the nervous system
 - c. The glands and the nervous system
 - d. The sympathetic nervous system
 - e. Automatic adjustments
- 2. FACTORS IN PHYSICAL HEALTH**
 - a. Nutrition
 - b. Oxygenation
 - c. Elimination
 - d. Circulation
 - e. Exercise
 - f. Recreation
 - g. Rest and sleep
 - h. Cleanliness
- 3. ORGANIC SOURCES OF IRRITATION**
 - a. Eye defects
 - b. Defects in hearing
 - c. Obstructed breathing; adenoids
 - d. Defective teeth
 - e. Abscesses and ulcers; infected tonsils
 - f. Flat feet
 - g. Defects of heart and other organs
- 4. FUNCTIONAL SOURCES OF IRRITATION**
 - a. Hunger or thirst
 - b. Need for voiding bladder and bowels
 - c. Constipation
 - d. Fatigue
- 5. EXTERNAL SOURCES OF DISTURBANCE AND IRRITATION**
 - a. Pain
 - b. Chafing and pressure, as from clothes, shoes, etc.
 - c. Extremes of temperature and humidity
 - d. Strained or awkward posture and positions
 - e. Noises
 - f. Glare

6. EMOTIONAL SOURCES OF DISTURBANCE

- a. Various privations and inhibitions
- b. Fright
- c. Anger
- d. Feeling of slight or inferiority
- e. Worry or anxiety
- f. Nagging
- g. Envy and jealousy

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35. EMOTIONAL ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT

It is in the emotions that our distinctly human activities have their source. The emotional habits of the individual, therefore, determine how he conducts himself in relation to his surroundings, how he establishes his contacts with other human beings, and how much satisfaction (not to say happiness), or the opposite, he causes others and gets for himself.

The emotions range not only in degree of intensity, as from a mild irritation to a wild rage, but also from feelings that are closely identified with physical conditions to those that seem to be unrelated to material things, as from pain or acute hunger to a religious ecstasy. Indeed, these extreme variations have made it difficult to agree on a satisfactory listing and classification of the emotions. Some will include among the emotions every "feeling" that is not obviously a sensation; Watson contents himself with a very few — fear, anger, and joy — and believes that all emotional states can be accounted for as variants or combinations of these three.

Very little is known about the mechanism of emotions, from the physiological side, and that little is of comparatively recent discovery. There is apparently a direct relation between chemical changes in the blood (and so in the nervous system and other tissues) and the emotional state of the person. The significant chemical changes appear to be related to the action of

the products of certain "glands," the so-called *endocrine* glands, of which the best known are the thyroid, the adrenals, the pituitary. The pancreas and the reproductive organs (ovaries and testes) and perhaps other organs also, seem to yield, in addition to their specific products, *hormones*, substances that are distributed by the blood and that affect various conditions or processes. Not all hormones bring about emotional changes; and it is possible that some emotional changes are unrelated to specific chemical states. The connection between emotions and internal secretions seems, however, to be well established.

The emotions are related further to the "instincts," both in the sense of being the motives or driving forces of "instinctive" behavior and in the sense of arising as satisfactions (or the opposite) from such behavior. Thus we say that a child fights because he feels pugnacious or that he feels angry when someone interferes with his play.

In the development of the child emotions appear at first in connection with a few types of situations — such as fear with a sudden noise, anger with the restriction of movements of the head or limbs (even when quite painless), pleasure with certain sensations, and so on. Gradually emotions become attached to various objects, persons, sensations, that are associated with situations in which the respective emotions are experienced. Later a small fragment of such a situation may be sufficient to arouse the emotion in question in full force.

The emotion-habits are further modified by the fact that in the course of the individual's development values and interests seem to arise or to change because

of something going on within. There is a normal maturing of the emotions just as there is of the organs and tissues. It is probably true, however, that there is a great deal of emotional fixation at childish levels from conditions that are largely controllable. A consideration of the stages through which some common emotional attitudes normally pass will help to make clear the general outlines of the development.

The infant resorts to contrariness to defend his personality against domination by others. Carried over into adult life this childish response is seen in unfortunate instances of obstinacy and negativism. Normally, however, in the process of maturing, the personality establishes a satisfactory technique for maintaining itself through its *positive* performances, instead of through perpetual resistance and apology.

In infancy, the affections become successively attached to selected individuals, pets, toys. Before adolescence the interests tend to narrow themselves to special groups. Later, the individual identifies himself with his own set or social grouping, which normally expands to a more inclusive group, until the adult feels himself a part of the largest class that he can grasp with his imagination and intelligence. In many individuals, however, this progression is arrested at one of the earlier stages, and various kinds and degrees of provincialism, exclusiveness, and bigotry are the result.

The child's interests in possessions normally develop not only in the direction of more highly differentiated and discriminatory valuations, but in the direction of a wider sharing with others. We find many adults, however, in whom such development has not progressed

— whose treasures are of a childish kind or whose ownership is secretive and exclusive.

Similarly, sexual development proceeds normally through self-regard, through love of another of the same sex, through attachment to a parent or other relative of the opposite sex, toward an adjustment to the opposite sex leading to marriage. But many adults have been permanently arrested at one of the earlier levels, and fail, therefore, to reach a normal, satisfactory adjustment of the sex life.

The guidance of the child includes his protection against the attachment of inadequate or of inappropriate feelings to various objects, persons, situations, or symbols, and the provision of opportunity and stimulation for a progressive expansion of interest and appreciation. It includes also a continuous reëducation as to values, a continuous transcending of earlier attachments.

OUTLINE

1. EMOTIONS IN INFANCY

a. How aroused

- (1) Mild stimulation — pleasure
- (2) Sudden or violent stimulation — fear
- (3) Frustration or restraint — anger
- (4) Release of strain; successful activity or achievement — satisfaction

b. How manifested

- (1) Facial expression
- (2) Gesture, posture
- (3) Vocal expression
- (4) Relation of emotions to instinctive activities

c. How modified

- (1) Conditioned reflexes
- (2) Substituted stimuli and responses

2. EFFECTS OF EMOTION

- a. Organic reactions (digestive, circulatory, neuromotor)
- b. Mental reactions (likes, dislikes, prejudices, ideals)
- c. Relation to habit
- d. Relation to imagination
 - (1) Organic conditions and processes; their influence on thought and feeling and vice versa

3. EMOTIONAL CONFLICTS

- a. Sources of conflict
 - (1) Opposing native trends
 - (2) Multiplicity of stimuli and desires
 - (3) Clash of self with environment, including needs and convenience of others
- b. Dangers of conflict
 - (1) Indecision and permanent dissatisfaction
 - (2) Repression of emotion resulting in
 - (a) Escape from reality to fantasy
 - (b) Fixation of desires at low levels
 - (c) Prevention of formation of integrated, well-rounded personality
- c. Constructive handling of conflict
 - (1) Adjustment through routine and standard practices in many physical and social details
 - (2) Learning to make choice and decision without fear
 - (3) Learning to accept mistakes without reproach
 - (4) Rôle of ideals, ambitions, etc.
 - (5) Repression a necessary aid
 - (a) In restraint of emotions for redirection to higher levels
 - (b) To be understood and guided, not used as a blind defense

4. STAGES IN EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- a. Stage of self-interest
 - (1) Simple pleasure-pain feelings in infancy (See 1, a)
 - (2) Rise to self-consciousness
 - (3) Passive resistance to external control — contrariness

- (4) Indiscriminate acquisitiveness, curiosity, destructiveness, cruelty, and their opposites
 - (5) Transition to self-assertiveness
 - (6) Positive self-regard — narcissism, exhibitionism, aggressiveness, boisterousness
 - (7) Creative activities and interests
 - (8) Differentiation from others shown in pride, vanity, stubbornness, sensitiveness, and their opposites
- b. Socializing and maturing interests
- (1) Homosexual stage
 - (a) Clubs, gangs, group loyalties, submission to group dominance, friendships
 - (2) Heterosexual stage
 - (a) Courtship interests — from undifferentiated interest in opposite sex to individual attachment
 - (b) Adjustment to mixed society
- c. Arrest of development
- (1) Fixation may take place at any stage
 - (2) Fixation may take place at different stages with regard to the several emotions and interests

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36. HABIT

Every normal child is born with a nervous system that is so arranged that various stimulations of the skin or of the sense organs bring about fixed responses. These responses to stimulation are unavoidable and in many cases can be brought about in the first place in no way except by the corresponding stimulation. Certain combinations of these reactions are called *instincts*, and they are often related to the adaptive adjustment of the child to his surroundings, as in the sucking response to an object brought into the mouth. From time to time, in the course of the child's development, there appear new modes of responding to the stimulations aroused by the environment; and some of the earlier instincts in turn disappear.

These native modes of reacting to the environment, and the spontaneous interests and desires, are capable of considerable modification, or of relatively permanent fixation. These relatively fixed modes of behavior, whether identical with the original ones, or modifications of them, are called habits; and these habits may eventually represent practically the whole of the adult scheme of conduct or character — that is, the more or less constant mode of action either as a matter of routine or as a matter of responding to whatever new situation may present itself. The formation of habits thus comes to be of prime importance in the guidance of the child's development.

The fixation of primitive modes of action comes about ordinarily from continued repetition. But the infant soon outgrows both the need and the opportunity to repeat his primary responses without modification. The modification of the instinctive activities is illustrated by the process through which the secretions of the salivary glands (watering of the mouth) comes to be a response to stimulation far removed from that which is the primary or original "cause" of the action, namely, the tasting of satisfying (palatable) food. We gradually substitute the sight or odor of food as a stimulus to salivation, then the sight of a picture, perhaps, then the mention of food, or the sound of the dinner bell, or the sight of printed words suggesting food, or a dinner invitation. That is to say, in the course of development, the child is capable of responding automatically in a typical way to a variety of stimuli that have been substituted for the original stimulus.

In the formation of habits the substitutions are facilitated by pleasurable emotional accompaniments; they are retarded or prevented by unpleasurable accompaniments. This is true whether the child is "learning" to form intellectual associations, or purely muscular acts; and it is true in the formation of associations that result in attitudes toward people, toward ideas, etc.

Education, or character formation, or training, may be considered as a process of instinct-modification, or habit-formation,) and these involve not merely repetitions (practise) but also the free and energetic discharge of pleasurable feeling. The education of the individual should be thought of as a continuous

process, never finished ; and eventually the child must come to direct his own habit formation as a conscious and deliberate adaptation to ideals.

OUTLINE

1. INHERITED BEHAVIOR PATTERNS
 - a. Stimulus and response
 - b. Kinds of native responses
 - c. Succession and fading out of instincts
2. MODIFICATION OF INSTINCTS
 - a. Conditioned reflex and association
 - b. Inhibition
 - c. "Learning"
3. FACTORS IN HABIT FORMATION
 - a. Intensity of simulation or action
 - b. Frequency and duration of "practise"
 - c. Emotional element
4. HABIT AND SELF DIRECTION
 - a. Habit as acquired behavior pattern
 - b. Continued capacity for modification
 - c. Influence of suggestion and ideals

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✓ 37. THE EARLY YEARS

During the first twelve to fifteen months, the life of the infant is characterized by the gradual separation from a shapeless bundle of wriggles and squeals, of more or less definite movements, more or less articulate sounds, and various expressions of mood and feeling. The outward movements are at first apparently random, unrelated to what is happening in the surroundings, or reflex, related only as a direct and immediate response to stimulation. In time we can see that a sound, instead of merely producing spasmodic or "startled" movements, will produce one effect if it is mother's footstep and a different one if it is father's voice. A change in illumination, instead of producing a stupid blinking, will produce one effect if it is brought about by the sight of the milk bottle and a different effect if it is accompanied by the sight of an unfriendly face. We say that the child begins to "recognize," which means that the elements of the environment, instead of being merely stimuli to general muscular contractions, gradually come to have the distinct effects of objects and persons, of pleasure or pain.

The emergence of a different attitude toward, and a different response to, the various things and persons of the environment depends upon the child's receiving different kinds or degrees of satisfaction or annoyance from these various elements as they encroach upon

him through his senses. It is therefore important that during this early period there should be first of all undisturbed sleep, and secondly regular routine of feeding. The first is necessary for avoiding irritations, excitements, overstimulation; the second, for establishing a useful rhythm in the basic physiological processes of nutrition and elimination.

It is possible for the child during this period to vegetate most of the time and to learn many of the simple proprieties of his station in life. He will insist upon attention if he has learned that he can get it by insisting; or he will be content to remain ignored for a long period if he has learned that insistence does not help. He will insist upon getting everything he sees, or he will be content to play with the things merely in reach. He will imitate facial expressions and the feelings that go with them; and he will imitate gestures and tones of voice.

His capacity to modify his simple reflexes by accepting substitutes and symbols for the direct satisfaction of his simple desires, and his tendency to reflect the actions and noises he observes, furnish the foundation for his discipline. The simple routine of attending to his needs, of avoiding disturbances, and of a happy atmosphere, accompanied by consistency in all dealings, are the essential requirements.

OUTLINE

1. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PERIOD

a. Movements

- (1) Random
- (2) Reflex
- (3) Imitative

- b. Sensorial Development
 - (1) Touch and taste
 - (2) Sight
 - (3) Sound
- c. Emotions
 - (1) Anger when frustrated
 - (2) Fear when startled
 - (3) Pleasure
 - (4) Disgust or aversion ; pain
 - (5) Hunger
- 2. MODIFICATION OF BEHAVIOR
 - a. Establishment of associations or conditioned reflexes
 - b. Transition of sensations from stimuli to suggestions or symbols
 - c. Establishment of routine by rhythm or repetition
 - d. Imitation of movements, sounds, expression
- 3. PROGRESS OF THE PERIOD
 - a. Differentiation of articulate speech from cooing and babbling
 - b. Manipulation of objects
 - c. Recognition of people and things
 - d. Distinction between permitted and forbidden actions
- 4. SPECIAL ATTAINMENTS
 - a. Sleeping when placed in certain position or place
 - b. Waiting for food
 - c. Regular bowel movements
 - d. Following suggestions, warnings, etc.
- 5. MANIFESTATIONS OF SEX
 - a. Sucking thumb
 - b. Cuddling
 - c. Masturbation

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38. SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

The infant responds to various stimuli that reach his senses through various meaningless jerks and contortions, and through cries and gurgles. These sounds, movements, and contortions gradually take on a definite form, influenced by the sounds and gestures that come to him and that he soon recognizes — that is, associates with certain feelings of pleasure, relief, excitement, and so on. By repeating the sounds, or as much of them as he can, he acquires "language."

Since language, both as performance and as meaning, is so closely dependent upon the child's experience, it is wise to avoid the use of cunning mispronunciations and distortions of the language we wish the child to acquire; it is disconcerting and misleading to abuse the words by giving them specialized, arbitrary, or remote meanings. On the other hand, telling simple stories in words that the child can understand, and reading well written stories within the child's comprehension, will go far to establish a useful vocabulary and to develop the concepts for which the words serve as symbols.

The enrichment of the child's vocabulary and of his mental content constitute so much of the intellectual development of the child, that there should be constant linking up of his experience and his thought with his language. The language should not be forced, but should follow quickly upon experience; there should be

impression before expression, but expression should not be inhibited or unduly delayed. In teaching reading and writing the printed page or the process of making conventional marks must not be treated as the immediate object of interest. It is more effective to arouse the child's curiosity as to the story which the strange marks have to tell, or his desire to tell others what he has on his mind.

Most speech defects that are not the direct result of imitation are due either to defective breathing and vocalization, or to some structural irregularity. In the former case, the cause is frequently found to be in an emotional state brought on through fear or repression. In any case, experts should be consulted.

OUTLINE

1. GROWTH OF LANGUAGE IN INFANCY

- a. Earliest vocalizations inarticulate
- b. Random movements and gestures
- c. Recognition of words before attempted utterance
- d. From cries and single words to sentences in three years
- e. Language acquired through imitation; "Baby talk"

2. TRAINING IN LANGUAGE

- a. Importance of correct pronunciation as model
- b. Vocabulary dependent on environment
- c. Reading aloud as source of language
- d. Value of having child repeat stories read or told

3. GROWTH OF CONCEPTS

- a. Expansion of the content of words
- b. Dependence upon range of experience
- c. Extension of experience through pictures, reading, etc.
- d. Value of discussion in development of concepts

4. WRITTEN LANGUAGE
 - a. Sound basis in spoken language
 - b. Interest in message before interest in medium
 - c. Pictures as language
5. PROBLEMS IN LATER LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT
 - a. Experience before expression
 - b. Content emphasized before form
 - c. Spelling to be mastered early
 - d. Grammar better studied later (after 12 years)
6. SPEECH DEFECTS ; CAUSES AND TREATMENT
 - a. Stammering
 - b. Stuttering
 - c. Lispings
 - d. Foreign and provincial accents

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39. SEX EDUCATION

Entirely apart from the function of reproduction, the presence of the sex organs in the body of the boy or girl gives rise through the internal secretions to a vast variety of impulses that in themselves have no obvious relation either to reproduction of the species or to other matters commonly thought of as constituting "sex." The self-assertive impulses as well as the altruistic ones, the interests that make possible art and science and religion as well as the most perverse degradations of the human spirit, seem to arise from the sex constitution of the growing child. The same impulses resting in the basic fact of sex are capable on the one hand of the loftiest reaches of spiritual attainment, and, on the other hand, of the lowest depths of bestiality and perversion.

Knowledge of these relations between his spiritual possibilities and the developing sex nature may well be withheld from the growing child ; but sooner or later ignorance becomes a source of danger, not alone to the individual himself, but more especially perhaps to the younger people whose development is in the hands of ignorant men and women. There is the shock that comes when the child, having been compelled to think of sex as something base, suddenly learns that his own parents have been defiled by it. There is the descent into the easy path of perversion when the upsurging desires can find no satisfactions, either in

the biologically normal though socially forbidden sex relations, or in diversions into substitute interests and activities. There is the danger of mental disturbance when the repressed powers produce strains for which the boy or girl can find no release. There is the exposure to seduction by unscrupulous older persons of either sex; and there is the menace of the venereal diseases with their train of calamity and tragedy.

These dangers of ignorance on the part of the individual or of his guardians call for more serious attention to the numerous unconscious manifestations of sex in the child. This does not mean that the child is to be informed at the earliest possible moment of all that the race has learned. It means, in the first place, the provision of conditions that are favorable to the healthy growth of the body, and the healthy growth of the whole organism, inclusive of sex. It means the provision of exercise and cleanliness and games, and the establishment of habits and interests that will continue exercise and cleanliness and playing, as a part of the day by day life through the years. It means the cultivation of creative activities and habits that may be retained through life as channels for the partial drawing away of the transformed or sublimated sex impulse, of which the normal, healthy boy or girl, man or woman, has much more than is needed for the fulfilling of the reproductive functions. It means the cultivation of interest in music and art and literature, in travel and adventure, in the pursuit of science or of social reform, or of some growing hobby. The religious observances that men and women retain through the years furnish, apart from any aid they may

give to strengthen the resolution, or the resistance to temptation, a safety valve for the emotional strain set up by the internal secretions of the sex glands. To the extent of each individual's capacity, there is need of opportunity to develop his idealism and his various partial impulses, such as curiosity, pugnacity, acquisitiveness, exhibitionism, etc., to the highest possible level.

—This is sex education of an implicit but very necessary kind. We may prefer to call it recreation, or character training, which indeed it is; but it is important for the trainer of character to understand that he is dealing with forces that have their source and their end in the sex nature of the child. It is further necessary, however, to give the child, from time to time, in proportion to his ability to understand, certain explicit information. The responsibility for this rests primarily with the home, first because the needed instruction must begin long before the child is ready for school, and second because through furnishing the information as needed the parent establishes a line of mutual understanding and confidence that is otherwise maintained only with difficulty. By answering the child's questions as they arise, as to the source of babies or bunnies or puppies, by introducing from time to time more circumstantial detail about the facts of sex in plants and animals, and gradually about the various aspects of sex in human life, the parent can bring the child by slow stages to both knowledge and understanding, to both facts and feelings that make for a wholesome attitude and for more certain self-control. The education should include first the facts of reproduction, the

particular sex manifestations of both sexes, sexual diseases, etc. It should also cover eventually the sordid low standards which make for prostitution, illegitimacy, and other aspects of mismanaged sex, and lead on and up to the meaning of marriage in its various aspects and highest ideals.

OUTLINE

1. IMPORTANCE OF SEX IN LIFE
 - a. The internal secretions
 - b. Manifestations of sex in infancy
 - c. Connection between sex and the higher capacities
2. DANGERS OF IGNORANCE
 - a. Shock
 - b. Perversions
 - c. Repressions
 - d. Mental disturbances
 - e. Venereal diseases
3. REGIMEN FOR UTILIZING SEX IMPULSES
 - a. Physical health
 - b. Abundant exercise
 - c. Interest in games and athletics
 - d. Interest in creative activities
 - e. Formation of ideals
 - f. Cultivation of social and chivalrous attitudes
 - g. Attainment of self-control
4. INSTRUCTION ABOUT SEX
 - a. Responsibility of parent and other agencies
 - b. Timeliness of instruction
 - c. Material and method of instruction
 - d. Keep line of communication open

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40. ADOLESCENCE—PHYSICAL

The "storm and stress" of adolescence, long considered as essentially characteristic of the period, have been looked forward to with fear and dread. A better understanding of the causes for the undoubted strains makes it seem possible that the child can be piloted through adolescence without serious crises.

After a few years of steady physical growth, the child presents an almost sudden acceleration of development. This period is closely connected with the approaching maturity of the reproductive organs, and many at least of the physical and emotional changes are initiated by the presence in the blood of specific substances produced by these organs.

The rapid and unequal growth of organs gives rise not only to a rapid evolution of muscular and nervous energies that must have safe channels for their discharge, but also certain difficulties of conduct and adjustment such as awkward traits in carriage and action, many automatic movements, alternations of overexertion and lassitude, and others. These energies need guidance and opportunities rather than suppression, and the physical and emotional health present the chief problems of the period.

Physical activities in the form of sports and athletics should be both more vigorous and better organized than during the earlier years. They serve as outlets for the vast amount of energy generated, as means for

perfecting control of the muscles, and as a means for training in emotional and social adjustment. Hand in hand with vigorous exercise there should, of course, be not only abundance of suitable food and the assurance of sufficient sleep, but a periodical physical examination to detect the condition of the heart, etc., and any need for corrective work.

OUTLINE

1. PHYSICAL CHANGES

- a. Sudden acceleration of growth
- b. Unequal development of various tissues and organs
- c. Rapid increase in muscular and nervous energy
- d. The maturing of the sex organs
- e. Chemical changes affecting appetite, fatigue, immunity to disease
- f. Increased sensory acuteness

2. EFFECTS IN CONDUCT

- a. Awkwardness of movement
- b. Modifications in posture and gait
- c. Automatic movements
- d. Overexertion alternating with lassitude
- e. Marked irritability
- f. Finicky appetite; digestive disturbances
- g. Advantages of steady habits during childhood

3. REGIMEN FOR SPECIAL NEEDS

- a. Outlet for energy
 - (1) Vigorous games
 - (2) Gardening
 - (3) Cold bath
 - (4) Boxing
 - (5) Swimming
- b. Compensation for energy
 - (1) Abundance of food; bulky rather than fine
 - (2) Abundance of sleep

c. Corrections and habituations

- (1) Formal gymnastics
- (2) Manual occupations
- (3) Athletics
- (4) Musical instruments

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41. ADOLESCENCE—EMOTIONAL

The child's general satisfaction with himself and his surroundings gives way during adolescence under the pressure of a host of problems, difficulties, and maladjustments. From indifference to matters not immediately related to pleasures and pains, he plunges into intense curiosity and self-consciousness, and into real though spasmodic concern with the standards of adults. Curiosity may show itself in a great variety of normal activities; but is also subject to ready perversion under unwholesome surroundings. And this applies to each of the impulses and interests that now come to the front.

Satisfaction with routine and drill is replaced by restlessness, leading often to truancy and erratic action; by doubts giving rise to religious disturbances, and by inability to concentrate for long upon any pursuit or undertaking.

After being for years apparently content with activities and movements for their own sake, he suddenly acquires new purposes and interest in special activities leading to definite results, whether in his play or in his work. The interest in other people becomes focused in friendship, and in loyalties to companions of his own choosing. In the same way the more or less habitual obedience and compliance with rules is replaced by a spirit of criticism and revolt

against authority, which usually means a selection of his own leaders and his own ideals of conduct.

The delinquencies that become so marked at this period may be considered as the special manifestations of normal impulses in an environment that is radically different from the one in which these impulses had their origin. The restrictions which civilized life necessarily places upon the impulses may compel the child to find satisfying outlets of a kind that are not suited to social life, and as a result there appear lying, stealing, truancy, vagrancy, sexual perversions, and other distressing departures from healthy conduct.

Opportunity for self expression along many lines, sympathy in the rapidly changing plans and ambitions, and full recognition of the child's right to his personality, should make the transition a happier one for all concerned. This is at any rate the "one chance to be a little of an artist, a little of a genius, a little of a hero" — if also to older eyes a little of a fool. But it is the folly of this period that bears all the potentialities and all the hope of something valuable and distinctive in the individual.

The adolescent has many new desires, and stands in need of stimulation, inspiration, and information. He reaches out into the material world and takes to himself what he can. From indiscriminating gathering of unattached objects he passes to systematic collecting with growing discriminations; in the ascending scale of values he passes from a prizing of material things for their own sake to an appreciation of wealth for more remote ends — or remains permanently arrested on a particular level of development. Romance and ad-

venture make a special appeal and should have satisfaction partly in new experiences, travel, etc., partly in the substitutes furnished by literature, the theater, etc.

There is equal need for an outlet to release the tensions and to yield the satisfactions of making an impression upon the persons and things of the environment. A variety of media in the arts and crafts, opportunity for oral and written expression, will divert from the temptation to indulge in direct action upon the person of a weaker associate. Varying degrees of intimacy in personal contacts are required — from the friend and confidant to the gang or club; and the opposite sex should be met in social games, play, and dancing. Opportunity for leadership and initiative, for exhibition of prowess and attainment, and for development of chivalry and the more generous impulses should be a normal part of the surroundings.

The final need of the period is for integration. While this need should be constantly kept in mind, there is danger of pushing it too hastily to a finish, before all the usable elements have had time to appear or develop. On the one hand, there is danger of a fixed character, narrowly limited in its sympathies, its appreciations, its visions; on the other hand, a failure to find a nucleus about which purpose and growth may be organized — dissipated versatility leading nowhere. In the former case early maturity and arrested growth, with perhaps effectively directed but specialized ability; in the latter case, eternal youth, perhaps, but never a forceful focusing of character.

Self-discovery is to be considered not some mystic

finding of a finished personality that lies concealed within the growing child. It must be a positive, creative process, a synthesis of many elements, a joining together more or less deliberately of the scattered interests of adolescence, into a coherent and harmonious system of ideals and purposes and habits.

OUTLINE

1. NEW INTERESTS AND IMPULSES

- a. Sex-consciousness
- b. Curiosity, basis of intellectual pursuits
- c. Self-consciousness
- d. Social interests
- e. Creative impulse
- f. Relation to authority
- g. Delinquencies

2. THE NEEDS OF THE PERIOD

- a. Impression (Resources for feeding emotional hunger)
 - (1) Acquisitiveness, collecting
 - (2) Romance and adventure, travel, literature, theater
 - (3) Curiosity
- b. Expression (Outlet for emotional energy)
 - (1) Creative activities; arts and crafts; dramatics
 - (2) Companionship; friendship, club, social gatherings, dancing
 - (3) Leadership; group activities and projects
 - (4) Service; outlet for chivalry, generosity, charity
- c. Guidance
 - (1) In self-discovery
 - (2) In appreciation
 - (3) In formation of ideals
- d. Rest
 - (1) Solitude and quiet
 - (2) Time to digest and assimilate

3. ATTITUDE OF ADULTS

- a. Considerateness
- b. Sympathy through intimate understanding
- c. Encouragement

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X 42. ADOLESCENCE — INTELLECTUAL

The curiosity that appears on the intellectual plane as a desire for knowledge, explanation, and understanding, is a special phase of the basic trend that shows itself in physical restlessness and discomfort, automatic movements, and in apparently aimless manipulations. And it manifests itself emotionally as a romantic sentiment, a discontent with the immediate surroundings, a desire for adventure, and impossible day-dreams.

The mind of the adolescent is rapidly expanding and seeks knowledge of more than can possibly be learned at first hand; hence an increase in the amount of reading, when reading is not too difficult; and hence an expansion in the range of subjects read. Information thus obtained at second hand, through reading, lectures, visits to museums, and so on, is readily absorbed, but should of course be considered as supplementary to first hand experience in the fields and woods, in the shop, and laboratory and studio. Indeed, the effective absorption of a considerable amount of such second-hand imagery and abstraction will depend upon the extent of the direct, concrete experience to which it may be attached.

There is a searching further for aid in formulating experience, with a certain readiness, in spite of the critical attitude, to accept plausible or well commended authorities on the wisdom of the race. There

should be every opportunity, therefore, to become acquainted with what the best and wisest have thought and said. Yet narrow or sectarian indoctrination should be scrupulously avoided, whether in religion or in politics, whether in art or in business.

The academic activities of the adolescent should in the earlier years consist of the accumulation of information, with little attempt at interpretation. Progressively there should come increasing analysis and organization. By analogy with the earlier development of the large muscles, and the later use of the small ones, the studies should deal at first with the broader outlines; details and precision may be expected only after specialized interests have begun to show themselves.

In general the studies of the high school period concern themselves with an understanding of social relations, as distinguished from the acquisition of habits of conventional conduct necessary for social adjustment. There should be a study of the individual's place in the community; the reciprocal rights and duties need now to be understood as well as exercised; the discovery of types of service that are worth while socially and that are at the same time satisfying modes of self-expression; the formulation of principles; a study of the meanings to be found in nature and in human experience.

These considerations should furnish the guide in the selection of studies, as well as in the methods of treatment: nature, especially in its organic aspects, with a matter-of-fact study of sex and reproduction; social sciences, the structure and functions of the civilized

community and of the family; the dynamics or evolution of institutions — a study of history, that is, which indicates how we have come to our present state of affairs; human achievement in the lives of men and women of the past worth knowing; human nature, not so much in formal psychology, as in drama and fiction; interpretation through poetry and essays, serving as an introduction to religious and philosophical literature.

In the infantile stage our curiosity, or hunger for knowing, is but the desire for the satisfactions that come from sensations. It appears not only in the incessant questionings, but also as prying into closed spaces, the playing of hide-and-find games, in distorting the vision by pressing the eyeball, and in peering from between the fingers. On the sublimation of curiosity, see No. 6 *Curiosity*.

OUTLINE

1. EXPANSION OF INTERESTS
 - a. Eagerness for novelty
 - b. Omniverous intellectual appetite
 - c. Superficial and transitory of necessity
2. SHIFTING OF INTELLECTUAL ATTITUDE
 - a. From facts to meanings
 - b. From authority to reason
 - c. From convention to criticism
3. NEW INTEREST IN ORGANIZATION OF KNOWLEDGE
 - a. From classification of materials to classification of ideas
 - b. Search for systems
 - c. Integration of knowledge into principles

4. SEX DIFFERENCES

- a. Girls develop earlier
- b. Boys seek explanations earlier
- c. Differentiation of "How?" from "Why?" questions

5. SELECTION OF STUDIES

- a. Freedom in range of reading
- b. Opportunity to sample all fields of intellectual activity
- c. Acquaintance with basic groups of studies
 - (1) Language
 - (2) Sciences — natural and social
 - (3) Achievement — history and biography
 - (4) Interpretation — literature, criticism, and introduction to philosophy
- d. Thinking and inspiration as well as information
- e. Danger of early specialization

6. IMPLICATION AS TO METHODS

- a. Increasing freedom of choice
- b. Increasing challenge to thought
- c. Increasing opportunity for initiative and experimentation
- d. Encouragement of self-reliance

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PART V.—INDIVIDUAL VARIATIONS

43. HEREDITY

With respect to every point that distinguishes a person from his fellows, the most frequent question asked is whether it is a native trait, or the result of training or experience, or of other external influence acting during the course of development. From a biological viewpoint, what is inherited is the total of potentialities, which can manifest themselves only in the course of development under suitable conditions; and, on the other hand, the effect of these conditions depends in the last analysis upon the "inheritance" of the organism.

There are practical problems whose solution depends upon recognizing both the capacities of the child and the bearing of the manifold external influences upon the development of these capacities. Thus, on the physical side, a child of a tall strain has the capacity to grow taller than his companions, but his attainment of maximum stature depends upon suitable feeding and other environmental factors. And these same conditions will enable another child to attain *his* maximum development which will, however, be measurably less than that of the first child. There is evidence to show not only that mental peculiarities depend upon the structure of the nervous and other systems of the body (particularly muscles and glands) but that, wherever they can be directly observed, they follow the same forms of transmission from generation to generation as

do the physical traits. This principle holds of the emotional powers, of the temper or disposition, and of any special talent. The individual at any given moment represents the result of the interaction of all of his inheritance and all of his individual experience, whether favorable or unfavorable.

The characters present in the offspring of two parents are found in some cases to lie midway between the corresponding characters of the parents; but in many cases the resemblance is altogether to one parent or altogether to the other parent. Thus certain characters show "dominance," as of dark eyes as against blue eyes. In succeeding generations the children of dark-eyed offspring of mixed parentage will "segregate," some having blue eyes and some dark. The presence of more or less complete dominance with subsequent segregation has been observed with respect to hundreds of characters in various plants and animals, including man.

Each pair of contrasting characters present in the lineage goes on combining and splitting up in succeeding generations, altogether independently of other pairs of characters. Each character thus behaves as an independent unit. As a result we find that each child resembles both parents (or both strains of ancestry) not by having each trait in some condition intermediate between the conditions of the two parents, but by having some characters altogether like those of the mother's side, and other characters altogether like those of the father's side.

There are certain characters in human beings as well as among other organisms, which seem to result

from the presence in the inheritance of two or more transmitted factors. As a result the individual shows peculiarities not to be recognized in either line of ancestors (except where the factors and their manifestations are known); and as a further result there is failure to transmit this combination (because of segregation) to future generations. This probably explains why "genius" is not only rare, but also never repeats itself.

The physical basis for the facts of heredity is fairly well understood, and is found in the structure and behavior of the nuclear matter in germ cells.

Because of the early separation during development of the living matter that is to form the germinal or reproductive protoplasm, from that which is to form the body of the individual, it becomes impossible to influence the inheritance of the progeny through the training or experience of the parents, although the developing embryo, as well, perhaps, as the germ cell, may be affected by disease, overwork or underfeeding. There is thus no practical reality underlying the concepts "maternal impression," "transmission of modifications," etc.

The practical application of an understanding of the facts of heredity, so far as the individual is concerned, will be directed to discovering native capacities worth cultivating, native limitations that need compensating through the cultivation of other traits, and the providing of an environment that will furnish the most favorable opportunity for healthy development. So far as the community is concerned, there is need for recognizing that certain types or strains of the population are

more desirable than others, and for finding means of encouraging the propagation of one, and restraining or preventing the multiplication of the other.

OUTLINE

1. VARIATION

- a. Kinds of variation
 - (1) Physical
 - (2) Mental
- b. Source of variation
 - (1) Nature
 - (2) Nurture

2. THE LAWS OF HEREDITY

- a. Dominance
- b. Segregation
- c. Unit characters
- d. Multiple factors

3. THE BIOLOGY OF HEREDITY

- a. The physical bearers of character
- b. Chromosome reduction
- c. Fertilization and the combining of characters

4. SPECIAL PROBLEMS

- a. Prenatal influence
- b. Transmission of modifications
- c. Inheritance of disease

5. APPLICATIONS

- a. Individual
 - (1) Discover limits and potentialities
 - (2) Furnish environment favoring desirable traits
 - (3) Avoid environment favoring undesirable traits
- b. Social
 - (1) Principles of eugenics
 - (2) Cultivation of taste in personality

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44. MENTAL TESTS

Mental tests are being increasingly used with children owing to the realization that through their use one can gain, in a short time, unbiased information of a very definite nature regarding the child's mentality.

About 1903, Alfred Binet devised the first practical test for obtaining the measure of a child's general intelligence. His big contribution to the subject was the standardization of tests according to chronological age of normal children. Binet made no attempt to differentiate the various types of ability. These tests were found to fill such a vital need that they have been revised for use in many countries, and are still in general use. The generally accepted American revision is Terman's, 1916.

Terman's efforts were directed toward standardizing the tests for use among American children from three years of age upward. For this purpose over ten thousand children were tested. These tests are now used in many schools and in all psychological clinics for preliminary classifications. By this means children can be divided according to their mentality into normal, subnormal, and supernormal. Although the tests do not pretend to throw light on anything but general intelligence, they do give some information as to memory, language ability, general information, etc. This information, however, is so meager that it is useful only as a guide for further testing.

Reliable as such tests are for evaluating general intelligence, it is well to remember that they should always be supplemented by additional tests for special abilities.

There are tests for mechanical ability, for engineering ability, for language ability, for general information, for learning ability, for apperception, for musical ability, etc. Of all tests of this type, Seashore's tests for musical ability have been most completely worked out.

Special ability tests should enable us to predict the type of work for which the child is best suited, where there is a decided talent or limited general ability.

Both General Intelligence and Special Ability tests can be called Capacity Tests; in contrast to these, we have Achievement Tests. The latter should be used in all schools as a means of ascertaining progress in each study. By their use comparisons can be made between teachers, methods of teaching, and the effects of varying school conditions such as length of period, ventilation, etc.

These Achievement Tests can be given by teachers with little or no special training. The General Intelligence and Special Ability Tests require both training in test giving, and a grounding in psychological principles.

It is recognized that in many cases various obscure physical and emotional factors seriously influence the child's performance even under favorable outward conditions; accordingly, the interpretation of "Intelligence Quotient" and other findings should be left to experts.

Helpful as the mental test has proved itself to be, many new and better tests will surely be developed in

the years to come, especially those dealing with the volitional and emotional side of life.

OUTLINE

1. USES
 - a. For adjustment of individual's progress
 - b. For classification of groups in schools and institutions
2. HISTORY AND PRINCIPLE
 - a. Basis of Binet's tests
 - b. Terman revision
 - c. Army tests
3. TYPES OF ABILITY TESTS
 - a. Language
 - b. Manipulation and mechanical
 - c. Learning ability
 - d. Musical
 - e. Mathematical
4. EDUCATIONAL TESTS
 - a. Material
 - b. Standard
5. LIMITATIONS OF TESTS
 - a. Correlation of various abilities
 - b. Relative values
 - c. Emotional factors

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and Primary Teachers"
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Upper Grades";
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School"

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ment";
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and Educational Guidance"

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45. THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD — DEFICIENT

Every child is in a sense exceptional. Nevertheless our studies of variations among children would never lead to any practical results if we did not accept as normal those children who show only slight deviations from the average. Over half the children, approximately sixty per cent, may be classed as normal in the sense that they depart from the theoretical average to an extent that does not raise problems of a special kind. The rest of the children depart in varying degrees from the normal in one or several respects involving special consideration or treatment. We must recognize that this is not a theoretical matter at all, but one purely of satisfactory adjustment of the child to the world in which he has to live. It is only because the program which is fairly satisfactory for the average child fails in practise to meet the requirements of a particular child that this child is considered exceptional. The use of tests is to facilitate diagnosis and to expedite adjustment, not to discover what we would rather not know.

The most obvious shortcomings are those of a physical nature — defective vision and hearing, crippled limbs, speech defects. Children with these shortcomings should not be segregated, since they need to learn early in life how to live with normal people. This does not mean that they should be treated precisely as are the normal children in the schoolroom. Obviously a nearsighted child or one hard of hearing should have

a front seat. When these defects are so serious as to constitute total blindness or deafness, it is necessary to provide separate classes in an ordinary school, so that these handicapped children may have the opportunity of mingling with normal children on the playground, etc. Of course, remediable defects call for specific treatment quite apart from the educational service supplied to the handicapped child. There are many minor deficiencies which are important in causing mental or educational retardation, and children who suffer from them require specialized treatment.

The chief cause of retardation or backwardness is mental deficiency, of which there are many degrees calling for different kinds of treatment. Children below normal in mental capacity are classified as idiotic where the mentality does not develop beyond the two or three year level, and as imbecile where it reaches to the two to seven year level. Such children can best be cared for in institutions and should be sent there no matter what apparent advantages the home may offer. It is important for parents to realize that their children are much happier surrounded by companions of their own age and mental development, and in an environment which does not demand too much from them.

The most difficult problem is that of the "moron" — the person whose mentality lies approximately between the ages of seven and twelve. For the sake of the child as well as of society, it is important that morons be recognized and that their capacities and limitations be understood. There are as many varieties among morons as among normal individuals. With care, a

useful place in society can be found for each. What this place is to be must be determined by individual study on the part of specialists. It must never be forgotten that these children are entitled to special supervision since they present problems with which their parents are usually unable to cope.

In regard to all mentally deficient children, it may be said that while we cannot improve their mentality, we have reached the point where, by a recognition of their capacities and limitations, we can so place them in our social scheme that they may lead happy and useful lives. But for the prevention of their multiplication, as well as for their protection against dangers of many kinds, the feeble-minded should be permanently under custodial supervision.

OUTLINE

1. WHAT IS NORMAL?
 - a. Absolute standards
 - b. Statistical standards
 - c. Social standards
 - d. Pedagogical standards
2. PHYSICAL HANDICAPS
 - a. Blindness
 - b. Deafness
 - c. Deformity and physical inferiorities
3. REMEDIABLE OR PREVENTABLE CONDITIONS CAUSING RETARDATION
 - a. Poor eyesight
 - b. Poor hearing
 - c. Infected tonsils
 - d. Adenoid growths
 - e. Bad teeth
 - f. Speech defects

g. Chronic infections — chiefly

Tuberculosis

Syphilis

h. Malnutrition

i. Cardiac deficiencies

4. FEEBLEMINDEDNESS

a. Causes — usually hereditary

b. Grades

(1) Idiot

(2) Imbecile

(3) Moron

c. Basis for differentiating

(1) Development

(2) Performance

(3) Special tests

5. NERVOUS AND PSYCHOPATHIC

a. Epileptic

b. Psychotic

c. Unstable

6. DISPOSITION AND TREATMENT

a. Value of early recognition

b. Clinic study and treatment

c. Distinction between permanent and curable defects

d. Segregation for treatment

(1) Medical or surgical

(2) Pedagogical

e. Permanent custodial care for feeble-minded

(1) For sake of the individual

(2) For sake of the community and the race

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46. THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD — DELINQUENT

The children and adults whose conduct does not meet with the requirements of social living have been explained in a variety of ways. According to some, the delinquent represents a heritable type of personality, or a person whose misconduct is, directly or indirectly, due to physical defects of constitution, to acquired disease, or to mental deficiency. It is true that the delinquents show a large proportion of physically and mentally deficient personalities, and that mental and physical deficiencies are inherited; but it is very questionable whether the theory of a criminal type can be established. At most it may be said that certain types of personality find it difficult to adjust themselves to life in a complex society, and that near the limits these types do not adjust themselves at all.

It is found more helpful to-day to consider delinquency as a mode of conduct resulting from defective development of the child's system of habits and feelings. The failure to acquire the desired habit may be due to shortcomings in the environment or to forces acting to distort or pervert the behavior into undesirable forms. Accordingly, the problem becomes one of preventing delinquency, rather than of segregating the criminal or delinquent types early in life, or of penalizing those whose way of living is repugnant to the common sense and interests of the community.

Among the more common forces making for delinquency are adverse home conditions—such, that is, as fail to provide the child at each stage with adequate opportunities for self expression and with adequate guidance. The growing child must acquire a technique of control of materials and forces, including those of his own body, whereby he may duly impress those around him in a way that brings satisfaction and approval. Whether this technique is acquired through work or play, through schooling or self directed activities, it is essential that it takes forms which are socially acceptable. The alternative is a spontaneous or fortuitous discovery of methods for obtaining the needed satisfactions, and these methods constitute the delinquent conduct in most cases. Not alone suitable recreational opportunities, but the companionship of adults and other children, and exposure to inspiring and stimulating forces, such as books and pictures, speakers and theaters, churches and community celebrations, must play a part. In many cases, too, delinquency represents a mode of behavior that is quite normal at an earlier stage, but not suited to the more developed stages of living; it is a sort of arrested development, a retention of infantile standards and ideals and habits that should be outgrown.

The restoration of a young person from a delinquent mode of life to one that is socially and mentally normal involves first, a separation from the earlier environment with its accustomed stimulations and suggestions to objectionable conduct, and second, a retraining that will establish self confidence and self respect, chiefly by means of activities that permit the acquirement of a

satisfying control over the self and over the environment. Institutional care may prevent further delinquency, but to be of lasting value it must aim at restoring the individual to normal life in accordance with his special needs and limitations.

OUTLINE

1. WHAT IS DELINQUENCY?

- a. The delinquent as a type of human being
 - (1) Criminal type theory
 - (2) Relation to physical defects
 - (3) Relation to mental defects
- b. Delinquency as a mode of conduct
 - (1) Meaning of maladjustment
 - (2) Specific sources or direction of maladjustment
 - Persons
 - School
 - Special objects or activities
 - (3) Importance of early years

2. PREVENTION OF DELINQUENCY

- a. Adverse home conditions
- b. Need for opportunity for self-expression
 - (1) Impulses must find outlet
 - (2) Personality must impress environment
 - (3) Play and work
- c. Companionship of other children and of adults
- d. Sources of inspiration and stimulation
- e. Instruction and guidance

3. REHABILITATION

- a. Isolation from early environment and "temptation"
- b. Opportunity for regaining self-confidence and self-respect
 - (1) Recreation and social contacts
 - (2) Experience with success
 - (3) Retraining
- c. Shortcomings of institutional methods

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47. THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD — SUPERIOR

Some children show very early in life general or special abilities of a high order, and continue for many years in advance of others of the same age. In some cases, however, the early ripening of ordinary ability leaves the child at adolescence a disappointing mediocrity, because so much is commonly expected of him. It is difficult ordinarily to distinguish these two types of precocity, although there is some evidence to link the latter form with some abnormality in the glands of internal secretion. In any case, precocity need not of itself cause alarm, since it is quite compatible with both physical health and mental balance. Where it represents high degree of native ability, the hereditary factor is probably prominent; but we must remember that "intelligence" is not a "unit" character, depending on a single germinal determinant, but rather the resultant of many hereditary elements.

Occasionally children appear that are for the most part indistinguishable from their fellows, except for a single outstanding talent. The excessive development of this will create the impression and produce the effect of high ability, even where the other capacities are decidedly below the average. The cultivation of special talents will of course depend upon the capacities and interests of the child, as well as upon external conditions that make such cultivation of value. There must be some prospect of compensation or approval to warrant the efforts required by high specialization.

The recognition of ability, whether general or special, is becoming increasingly important for both the individual and the community. Genius is sometimes suspected where there is nothing but a specialized technique of self-assertiveness or some nervous disturbance. It is probable, however, that in many cases a high degree of development is attained as a result of overtraining or overcompensating for some real or imaginary defect. The child of exceptional ability will show his departure from the ordinary first through the delicacy of sense perception and discrimination, then by accuracy of muscular coördination, later by the activity of his imagination, and in the highest reaches by ability for abstract thinking and critical reaction to suggestions that come to him. Mental tests have not yet been refined to the point of giving us prompt and certain indications of genius in very young children, but as far as they have gone, they are of decided value in diagnosing the more common useful capacities.

It often happens that the exceptional child of superior ability needs more than ordinary attention to his health, since he is likely to be easily overstimulated. He should of course have free access to every usable avenue of self expression, that he may early discover effective media in which to work and play; and he should have the advantage of association with satisfying and stimulating companions. This will mean in many cases that children of superior ability should be segregated for portions of their time, both in school and in some of their play, in order that their educational progress may be commensurate with their abilities.

Such segregation carries of course the danger of developing a certain unwholesome arrogance or conceit; this is to be avoided by emphasis upon character and service rather than upon intellectual or artistic achievement. Unless these children of genuine superiority acquire early the principle of *noblesse oblige*, society would be better off without their education.

OUTLINE

1. PRECOCITY

- a. Early manifestations of ability of high order
 - (1) General
 - (2) Special
- b. Early maturing of ordinary ability
- c. Compatibility with health and balance
- d. Hereditary factor

2. COMPENSATING SPECIALIZATION

- a. Development of single talent by mediocre individual
- b. Factors determining specialization
 - (1) Native capacity and interest
 - (2) Casual stimulation or suggestion
 - (3) Feeling of inferiority

3. RECOGNITION OF SPECIAL ABILITY

- a. Genius *versus* psychasthenia
- b. Sequence of manifestations
 - (1) Sensory impressions
 - (2) Muscular coördination
 - (3) Imagination
 - (4) Abstract thinking; critical ability

4. PRACTICAL NEEDS

- a. Protection of health
- b. Free access to means of self-expression
- c. Association with satisfying and stimulating companions

- d. Opportunity for educational progress commensurate with growth-capacity
- e. Social adjustment
- f. Protection against development of conceit

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